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de Oliveira, Maria do Ceo Costa

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STRATEGIES FOR INTEGRATING
INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL INTERESTS

Submitted by Maria do Ceo Costa de Oliveira
for the degree of Ph.D.
of the University of Bath

1983

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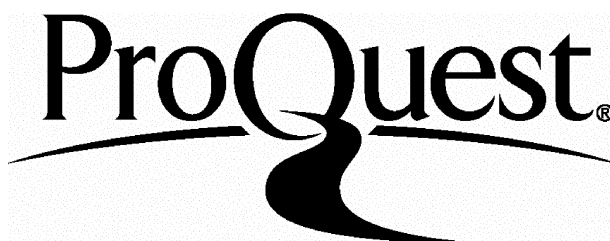
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To Luiz, Riane and my family

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S U M M A R Y

It is of the greatest theoretical and practical importance to understand the problem of integrating individual and organizational interests. Some organizational theorists have expressed concern about what will induce individuals to work and what will reconcile their interests with those of the organization. However, there have been relatively few studies dealing with the matter and, in general, there is very little known about what promotes the overlapping of the interests of the parties. This research was conducted in an attempt to shed some light on this area. Specifically, the objectives of this study were:

1. To compare individual and organizational perceptions of goal integration strategies utilized by the organization for increasing the possibility of overlap between individual and organizational interests.
2. To investigate, from both the individual and the organizational perspective, which particular strategy, or set of strategies, if any, is associated with a higher degree of goal integration.

This study was carried out based on a theoretical model developed at the University of Michigan. The model encompasses three goal integration strategies for promoting the overlap between individual and organizational interests. This research applied the model to two sets of data from branches of Brazilian organizations operating in London.

The main contributions of this study are the following:

- a) It clarifies the concepts of exchange, socialization and accommodation in organizational settings.
- b) It proposes an extension of the original model to take into account the political perspective of organizations.

In very general terms, the findings led us to conclude that there seems to be no universal or unconditional strategy capable of integrating the individual and organizational interests. Although a particular strategy may predominate at certain times, it does not preclude the concurrent use of other strategies.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE PROBLEM

This study focuses upon the problem of goal integration strategies for promoting the overlap between individual and organizational interests. Concern over the relationship between the individual and the organization has been expressed by various organizational theorists in a variety of ways.

Approximately over fifty years ago Mary Parker Follet dedicated considerable attention to the nature of the relationship between the individuals and business organizations. Generally speaking, she believed that the success of any organization was largely dependent upon the contribution of its individual members, and that one of the main problems of "organization engineering" was to find a method for integrating the contributions of the individuals with the objectives of the organization. She argued that,

"...there are three chief problems of organization engineering: Firstly, how to educate and train the members of an organization so that each can give the most he is capable of; secondly, how to give to

each the fullest opportunity for contribution; thirdly, how to unify the various contributions ..." (Follet, 1941:228)

Following their research in Hawthorne, Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) emphasized the complex nature of the interdependence between the individual and the organization. They classed the major problems faced by industrial organizations in two broad categories. The first category concerned the problems of external balance of the organization, namely those related with the economic purpose of the enterprise, such as production and marketing decisions, etc. The second category concerned the question of maintaining an internal equilibrium in the organization. They suggested that by integrating the interests of the various individuals and groups within the organization it could be created a kind of social environment in which individuals could, through their work experience, satisfy their desires. In general they proposed that this kind of work environment was intimately related to the overall success of the organization.

Within the framework of theory Y, MacGregor (1957:26) emphasized the importance of integrating individual goals and organizational objectives so that

"people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts towards organizational objectives".

Likert also recognizes the importance of the matter, suggesting that "the ability of a superior to behave in a supportive manner is circumscribed by the degree of compatibility between the objectives of the organization and the needs of the individuals comprising it". (Likert, 1961:115).

According to Chris Argyris, considering the nature and complexity of modern organizations and characteristics of human beings, the problem of integrating individual and organizational interests poses a fundamental challenge to organizational theorists and management practitioners. Specifically, Argyris has raised the question:

"How is it possible to create an organization in which the individuals may obtain optimum expression and, simultaneously, in which the organization itself may obtain optimum satisfaction of its demands?" (Argyris, 1957:24)

In an attempt to gain a better understanding of the problem of integrating individual goals and organizational objectives, the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan sponsored a

comprehensive study of the matter, developed by Barret (1977). For nearly twenty years this Institute has been conducting theoretical and empirical research on a broad range of subjects, particularly on the cognitive, attitudinal, affective and behavioural responses of the individual to the organization and the social environment. The approach adopted by Barret for analyzing the relationship between individual and organizational interests was through the study of integration mechanisms. A theoretical model was formulated, encompassing three different goal integration strategies utilized by the organization, for increasing the possibilities of overlap between individual and organizational interests. These strategies will be referred to as the exchange, socialization and accommodation models and will be explained in section 1.3, which deals with the theoretical framework adopted for this research.

1.2 THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In an attempt to analyze strategies for promoting the integration of individual and organizational interests, the major objectives of this study are the following:

1. To compare individual and organizational perceptions of goal integration strategies utilized by the organization for increasing the possibility of overlap between individual and organizational interests.
2. To investigate, from both the individual and the organizational perspective, which particular strategy, or set of strategies, if any, is associated with a higher degree of goal integration.

1.3 THE RESEARCH THEORETICAL MODEL

In order to compare individual and organizational perceptions of goal integration mechanisms and the degree of goal integration achieved, we adapted Barret's (1977) model of goal integration mechanisms. Figure 1.1 presents the diagram of the general theoretical model which was used as a framework for this research. The general concepts involved in the research theoretical model are discussed below.

Initially, it seems appropriate to present the difference between the concepts of organizational objectives and goals. In the organization literature, these two concepts are sometimes used synonymously. In this research organizational objectives are considered as those which justify the existence or purpose of the organization. For instance, the objectives or macro goals of an institution of higher education in Brazil are to teach, to develop research and to provide services for the local community, while its goals are subsets of these objectives to be reached within limited time, resources and situational constraints. The macro goals of an organization are normally the written statements made about its intended purposes. These official objectives, (Perrow, 1961) or general intentions, generally appear in organizational

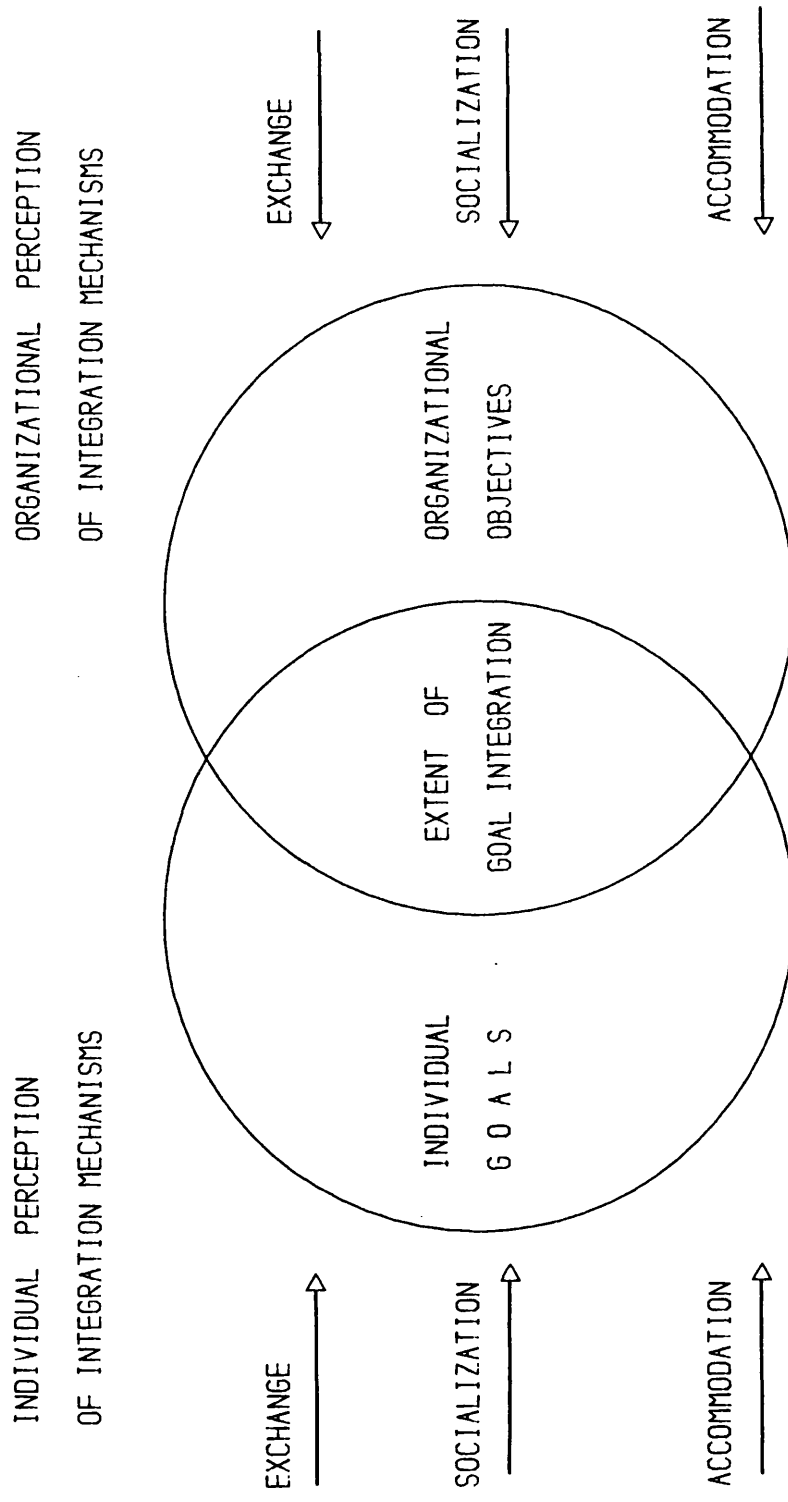


Figure 1.1- The Research Theoretical Model

documents, literature, etc., or in public statements made by its representatives. However, it seems that these macro goals are general, vague, and abstract in nature and do not represent the actual policies or what the organization is trying to reach. Perrow (1961) suggests that through the current activities, or "operative goals", the "official" objectives can be realized and the organizational policies known. The same author indicates that the organization's operative goals serve:

- a) To designate the ends sought for the organization through its actual policies;
- b) To inform what are the current interests of the organization;
- c) As means to official objectives;
- d) To provide the specific content of official objectives;
- e) To reflect choice among competing values.

Formal organizations, whatever be their purpose, are explicitly established for achieving specific objectives. Approximately thirty years ago, Gulick noted that " a clear statement of purpose universally understood is the outstanding guarantee of

effective administration". (Gulick, 1948: 77) Later Etzioni suggested that "an organizational goal is a desired state of affairs which the organization attempts to realize". (Etzioni, 1964 : 6) According to Huse and Bowditch (1977), the important aspect of Etzioni's concept of organizational goal is the statement of a "desired state of affairs" that the organization attempts to realize. In other words, even though organizations do not reach their goals or objectives, they provide a sense of direction and purpose.

Cyert and March (1963) and Simon (1964) conceptualize organizational goals as ideas held in the human mind rather than a property of an abstraction - the organization itself. (As cited in Greenfield, 1973: 555-556). According to Greenfield, organizational goals are simply creations of the individuals working within it, since they "not only create the organization", but "they are the organization". (ibid).

Simon (1964) seems to conceptualize organizational goals as distinct from those of the individuals. He points out that the macro goals or objectives of organizations are the product of various interests and constraints imposed on the organization by customers, suppliers, owners, employees and society

in general. For Simon, because of this diversity of interests, the process by which the organization chooses a "complex goal of action" for satisfying the multitude of constraints, pressures and interests, is, to a large extent, arbitrary. Perrow (1961) points out that since organizations operate under multiple goals, it is usually difficult to identify the specific goals of the organization and proposes a distinction between the official and operative goals, as discussed at the outset of this section. To Cyert and March, (1963) organizational goals are established by a dominant coalition of organizational members with different perceptions, interests and experiences. Through a continuous bargaining process the dominant coalition attempts to satisfy the conflicting interests of the participant individuals.

Assuming that the perceptions, experiences, interests, needs, and the personal ambitions of the individual members of the prevailing coalitions change over time and that organizational goals are expressions of these factors, the goals of the organization seem to be dynamic in nature. As to possible conflict of interests between the participant members of the coalition, Cyert and March suggest that " ... because of the form of the goals and the way in which they are established, conflict is never fully resolved within an

organization" (Cyert and March, 1963: 43).

Considering that organizational goals are basically ideas and interests held by the individual participants of the coalition in power, the possibility of conflicting interests between individual and organizational interests seems to be an important variable in organizational affairs since "the individual must concern himself not only with his own goals but with those of others as well" (Greenfield, 1973:556). Apparently, the possibility of conflict between the individuals' own goals and those of the organizations was first recognized in the behavioural literature by Merton (1936), Selznick (1949), and Gouldner (1954).

Although individual and organizational goals seem to be "inextricably intertwined", (Greenfield, 1973) at the same time, they appear to be in latent conflict with each other since,

"Organizations are essentially political arenas wherein individuals and groups struggle to have what they consider right and proper prevail. In some circumstances perhaps even many, interests and perceptions of what is right and proper coincide; thus cooperation is possible and desirable. In

other circumstances perhaps even many, interests and perceptions of what is right and proper coincide; thus cooperation is possible and desirable. In other circumstances, interests do not overlap and perceptions do not coincide thus antagonism is possible and inevitable" (Bate and Mangham, 1981: 175).

One of the major focus of Barret's study concerned the employee's "present" perceptions of mechanisms designed by the organizations for increasing the overlap between organization objectives and individual goals. This study, however, attempted to expand Barret's approach and investigate this problem from two perspectives, examining both individual and organizational perceptions of current and ideal states of goal integration mechanisms, and the extent of goal integration achieved in the organization. As shown in the theoretical framework of this study, processes which were assumed to affect the overlap between individual goals and organizational objectives were classified under three general models, incorporating the exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms. Within this context, Barret provides an overview of the three models, comprising a variety of goal integration mechanisms:

THE EXCHANGE MODEL

"In the exchange model, a fairly explicit bargaining relationship prevails between the organization and the individual. The organization assists the individual in the pursuit of some of his personal goals and, in return, he devotes some of his time and energy to helping the organization pursue some of its specific objectives. Examples of particular goal integration mechanisms falling under the exchange model are the use of pay to encourage individuals to engage in activities that are not intrinsically interesting and the provision of social incentives, such as supportive relationships with superiors or the opportunity to interact informally with peers, on the condition that the individual is contributing to the achievement of organizational objectives".
(Barret, 1977:97)

The exchange model is shown in figure 1.2. It illustrates an exchange relationship between the individual and the organization, resulting in an overlap between them. Schematically, this overlap may be achieved by moving the subsets "individual goals" and "organizational objectives" towards each other.

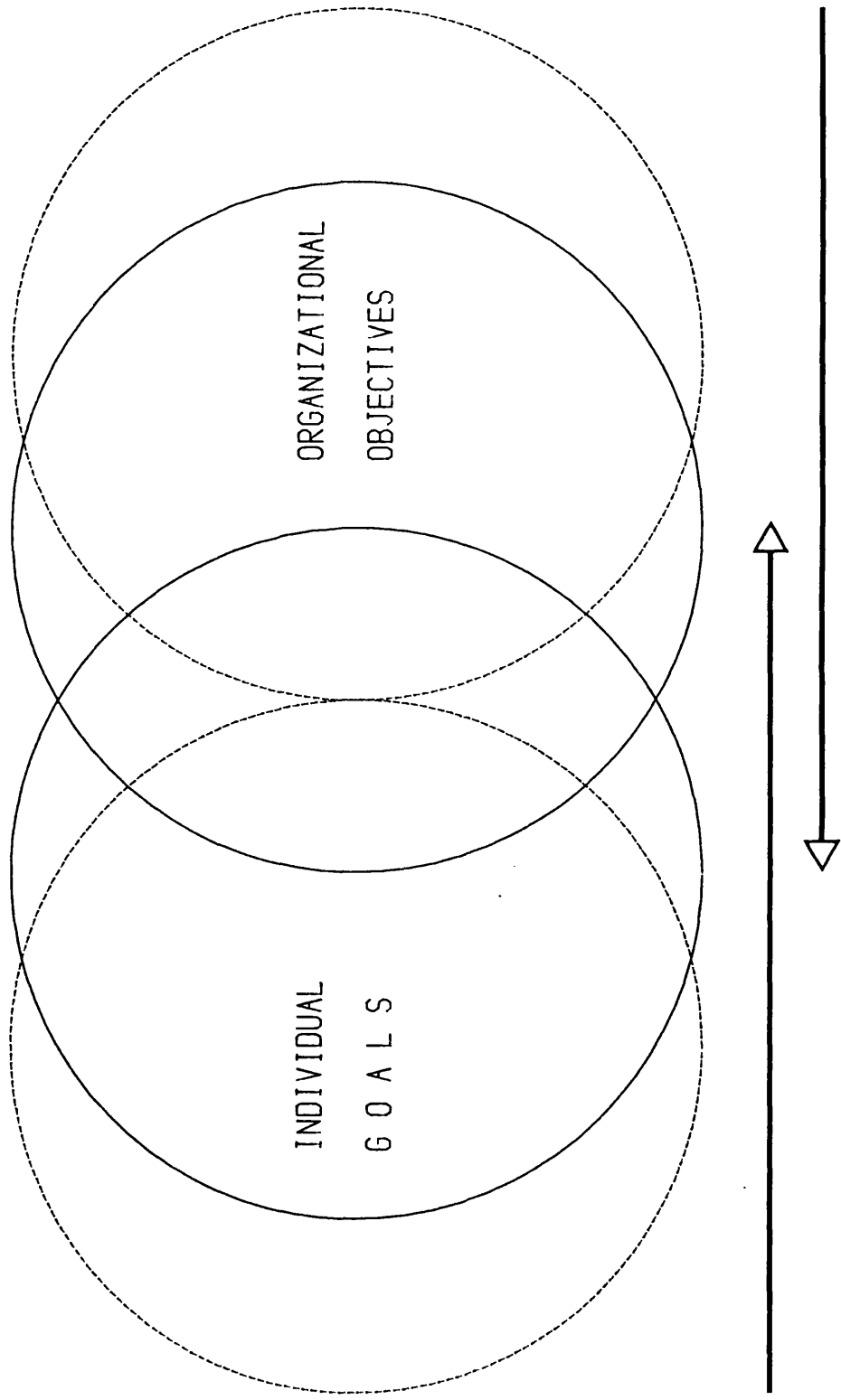


Figure 1.2 The Exchange Model

THE SOCIALIZATION MODEL

"Under the second general approach, called the socialization model, goal integration is achieved by influencing the individual to adopt some of the organization's objectives as personal goals or to give up personal goals that conflict with organizational objectives. Under this model, either a formal leader or members of a peer group may, through persuasion or example-setting, encourage the individual to adopt organizational objectives as personal goals".
(Barret,1977: 97-98)

Figure 1.3 presents the socialization model. In general terms, it assumes that the organization, through social influence, modelling behaviour and similar processes, encourages the individuals to increase the overlap between individual goals and organizational objectives. In the diagram this overlap may be increased by moving the subset "individual goals" towards "organizational objectives".

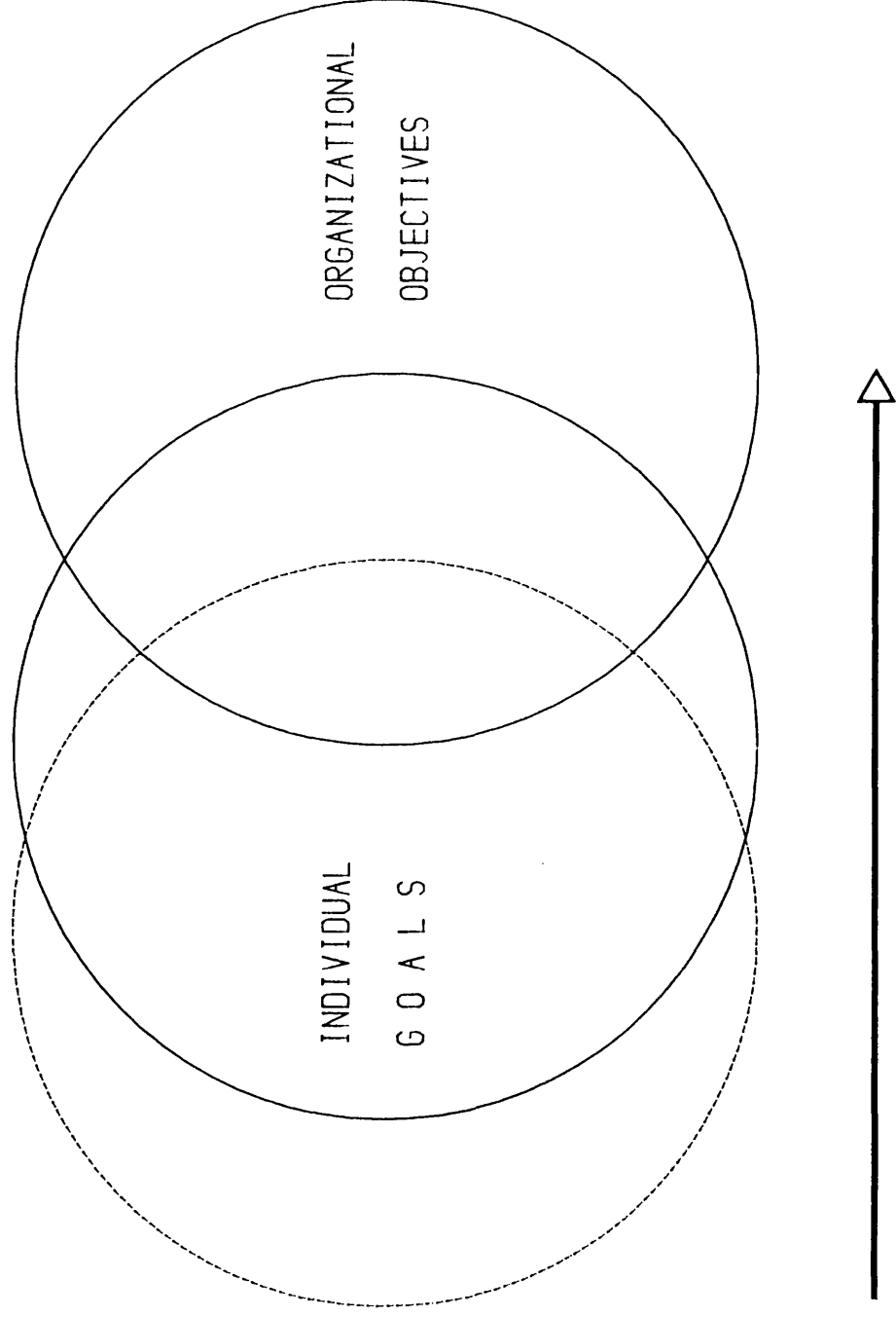


Figure 1.3 The Socialization Model

THE ACCOMMODATION MODEL

"Under the third approach, referred to as the accommodation model, the emphasis is on taking individual goals as given and attempting to design the roles and processes needed for attaining organizational objectives in such a way that these individual goals can be achieved. Particular mechanisms falling under this model include designing organizational roles or jobs with the needs and interests of their occupants in mind, and providing for participation of individuals in the objective-setting and problem-solving processes in the organization". (Barret, 1977 : 98)

The accommodation model is represented in figure 1.4. It assumes that if individuals' interests are taken into account in organizational affairs, this might result in an enlarged degree of goal integration, since while pursuing their interests individuals may be simultaneously helping the organization to achieve their objectives. In figure 1.4, an increased overlap between individual goals and organizational objectives may be achieved by moving the subset "organizational objectives" towards "individual goals".

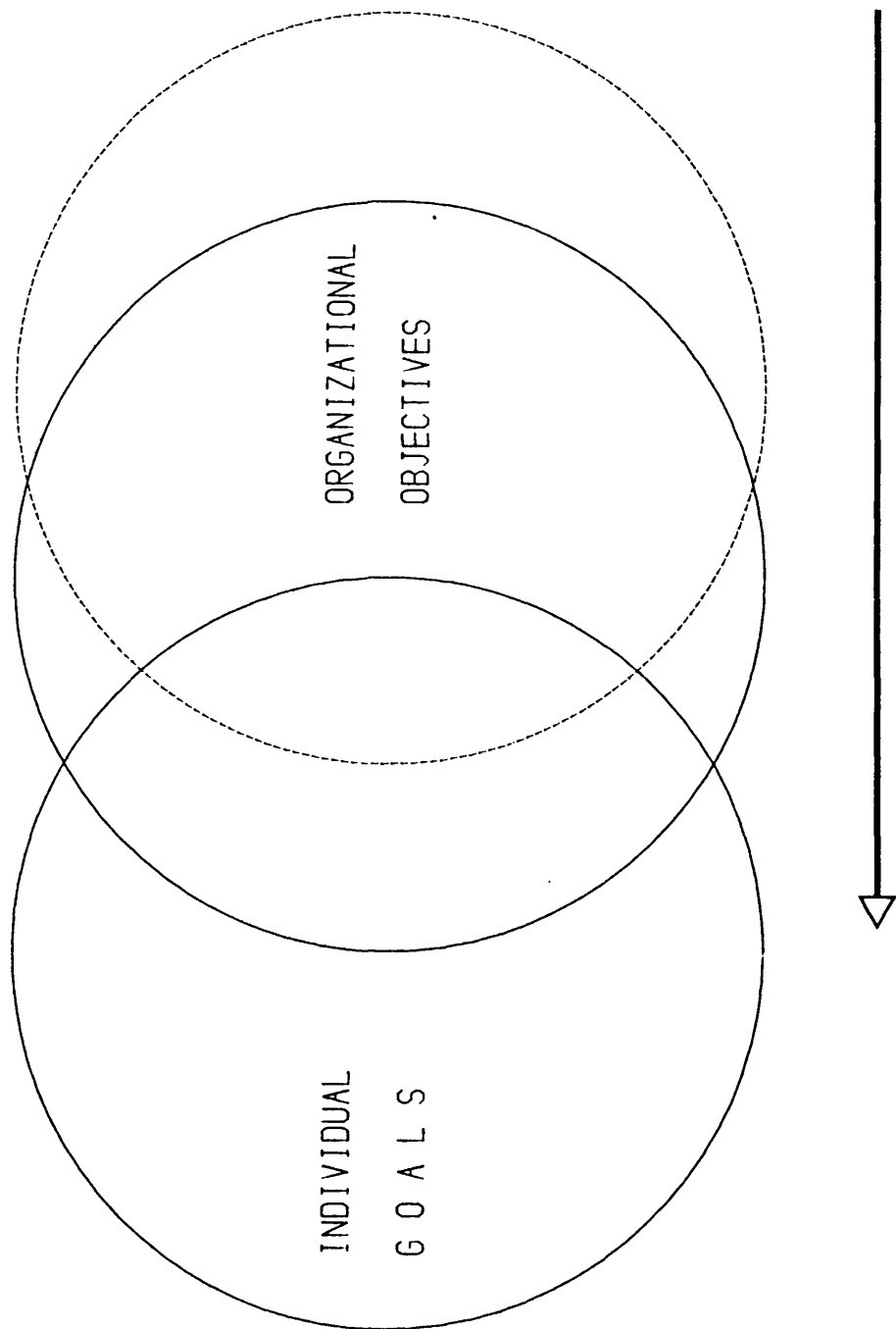


Figure 1.4 The Accommodation Model

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The review of the literature to be presented in this chapter intends to provide a theoretical frame of reference and some concepts for analyzing and discussing the exchange, socialization and accommodation models, as defined in section 1.3. Basically, these three models represent approaches used by organizations for integrating their goals with those of the individuals within them.

This chapter contains three main sections. Sections 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4 are concerned with the framework of the exchange, socialization and accommodation models, respectively.

2.2 THE EXCHANGE MODEL

Considering that the theoretical framework of the exchange model utilized in this research is largely based on concepts derived from social exchange theory and the classical theory of organizations, an overview of these theories will be provided in an attempt to establish a theoretical basis for analyzing and discussing the exchange model.

During the second half of the eighteenth century, with the introduction of the steam engine, new chemical processes for making iron, the wide utilization of coal as a form of energy and several inventions such as the carding machine, the power-loom, cotton-spinning machines, etc., several socio-economic and political changes took place in Europe, and particularly in England.

With new methods of transportation, the expansion of the markets through increased domestic and foreign trade, the introduction of new technologies and methods of production in industry, the system of small businesses controlled by individual artisans started gradually to be replaced by large factories organized by capitalistic entrepreneurs. (Marshall, 1890).

As the improvements in the "manufacturing arts", (Smith, 1840) the new organization of industry and factory management gained momentum, human labour was considered merely as a commodity which could be bought and sold in the labour markets, subject to the forces of supply and demand, and classed as a factor of production, together with capital, land and organization (Marshall, 1890).

Within the context of the industrial revolution, management philosophy began to conceptualize ways of deriving maximum output from

human labour in order to satisfy the economic objectives of industrial enterprises. The basic assumptions seemed to be based on principles of greater effectiveness and efficiency for the organizations and subsistence salaries for the employees. Thus, the vast majority of management theorists, probably influenced by the traditions of classical economic theory based their assumptions on the hypothetical behaviour of "homo economicus". For these theoreticians, each individual human being behaves like economic man and is motivated by the monetary rewards of labour. In general terms, classical management authors viewed man as:

"A rational creature who uses his reason primarily to calculate exactly how much satisfaction he may obtain from the smallest amount of effort, or when necessary, how much discomfort he can avoid. "Satisfaction" does not mean pride in one's job, the feeling of having accomplished something, or even the regard of others; it refers only to money. Similarly, "discomfort" refers not to failing in one's task or losing the respect of one's comrades, but solely to the fear of starvation. Economic man is naturally

competitive, basically self interested, and in the battle of life strives hard to outwit every other man; so far from helping the weak or the underdog, his sole concern is with his very own survival". (Brown, 1954:16).

Since the beginning of the twentieth century, the notion of greater efficiency and effectiveness by the organizations and the concept of economic man, derived from classical economic theory (Ricardo, 1924; Marshall, 1890), appeared to have exerted a great influence in the subsequent development of organizational thinking.

In 1911, Frederick Winslow Taylor, an american engineer, proposed a "scientific management" approach that advocated simplification of jobs, rewards on a piece rate basis, careful planning of activities and close control over the work flow. This scientific management approach, was based on the assumption that inefficiency was one of the major problems of industrial organizations. In his view this inefficiency derived both from the workman (loafing or soldering, negligence, etc) and the management. (Incompetence, unawareness of the material and human resources, etc.) Thus, Taylor's approach was largely directed at eliminating this inefficiency, in an

attempt to create an harmonious relationship between labour and management, or what Rose (1978:34) calls an "authentic industrial partnership".

According to Bobbit, Breinholt, Doktor and McNaul (1974), the following four principles characterize Taylor's "scientific management" school:

1. Development of a science to replace the rule-of-thumb knowledge of the workman;
2. Scientific selection and development of the workman;
3. Unification of the scientifically selected workman and the science;
4. Division of the work into planning (by the managers) and execution by the worker.

Haas and Drabek provide another description of Taylor's approach:

"Thus, there emerges a theoretical perspective that emphasizes the formal structure. Individuals are viewed as economically motivated creatures who are placed within these structures. The key to success, designed as optimal organizational efficiency, lies in the arrangement of the

"parts". The parts include men and machines. And the entire organization is viewed as one large machine. Machines in this view, take on an image of being appendages to the members, or perhaps it is just the opposite" (Haas and Drabek, 1973: 37).

Taylor seems to consider informal relations between workers as potentially dangerous for the efficiency of the organization. In a paper presented for the American Society of Mechanical Engineers in 1903, he states:

"... loafing or soldiering proceeds from two causes. First, from the natural instinct and tendency of men to take it easy, which may be called natural soldiering. Second, from more intricate second thought and reasoning caused by their relations with other men which may be called systematic soldiering." (Taylor, 1911:19).

Based on his observations at the Bethlehem Steel Works, he further supports this point:

"... the loss of ambition and initiative takes place in workmen when they are herded into gangs instead of being treated as

separate individuals ... when workmen are herded together in gangs, each man in the gang becomes far less efficient than when his personal ambition is stimulated; ... when men work in gangs, their individual efficiency falls almost invariably down to or below the level of the worst man in the gang..." (Taylor, 1911: 72, 73).

His ideas of scientific management later became part of the classical, rational or mechanistic school. In this study these terms will be used interchangeably.

For the classical approach, "higher productivity leads to higher profits which in turn leads to higher pay and greater work satisfaction" (Etzioni, 1964:21). As Etzioni has suggested, the classical school's view supports the idea of monetary rewards as the main source of individual's motivation. Considering that Taylor focused attention at the lower level of the organization or the "average workman" it may be argued that his analysis was restricted to their perceptions, specific needs and motivations. Perhaps, if he had extended his research to individuals at higher levels at the organizations he would have discovered other motivational assumptions rather than

pure money.

Another important classical theorist is Max Weber, (1947) a German sociologist, who introduced a bureaucratic model of organization, emphasizing notions of rational authority, routinized procedures, and implicit rationality in organizational actions. Haas and Drabek, attempt to summarize Weber's view as follows:

1. The organization has a well defined goal;
2. Policies, procedures and behaviours are rational;
3. By following rules, there is more efficiency;
4. Organization is viewed as a collection of structures to be manipulated to increase the overall effectiveness;
5. The organization is a highly efficient machine where actors are collectively engaged to accomplish a desired end;
6. Any departures from rationality are assumed to be a random mistake. (Haas and Drabek, 1973: 38-39).

Besides Taylor and Weber, other theorists also contributed to the classical school of thought, such as Gulick and Urwick (1937) who focused on aspects of the division of work. However, the greatest modification of the rational school occurred through the neo-classical approaches of Simon, Smithburg and Thompson (1958, 1959). As Etzioni has argued, their

"... approach is classical in that it still pays considerable attention to formal structure and to rational considerations; it differs from the traditional approach in studying the actual ways values (or goods and job goals) of an organization can be and are implemented". (Etzioni, 1964:25).

Generally, the classical and neo-classical management theorists utilized implicitly or explicitly the notion of exchange between the individual and the organization. However, the concept of exchange was further explored and systematized by Homans, (1950; 1958; 1961) Peter Blau, (1964) Levi-Strauss (1949; 1957) and Thibaut and Kelly, (1959). The concept of social exchange is described by Homans as

"... an exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or

costly, between at least two persons"
(Homans, 1961).

Having developed a comprehensive theory on social exchange, Homans is considered as one of the most prominent theorist in the field of social behaviour. However, he is not seen as the first to have called attention to the subject. (Blau, 1968; Ekeh, 1974).

Homans' (1958) social exchange theory is based on a two-party model of mutual reciprocity encompassing psychological needs and economic motives. The basic assumption underlying his model of interpersonal exchange relationships is the concept of "distributive justice", based on notions of rewards and costs involved in the exchange process. Homans explains this concept as follows:

"A man with exchange relations with another will expect that the rewards of each man be proportional to his costs - the greater the rewards the greater the costs - and that the net rewards, or profits, of each man be proportional to his investments. The greater the investments, the greater the profit".
(Homans, 1950: 75)

The concept of conditional rewards in interpersonal relationships was also put forward by Homans (1958). In general terms this concept suggests that one individual will enter into exchange relationships with another contingent upon the display of a specific behaviour by the second party. Applying this concept for the relationships between the individual and the organization, the individual is assumed to contribute towards the achievement of organizational goals contingent upon the organization helping him in the pursuit of some of his presumed goals, i.e., a better financial position, job security, etc.

One critic of Homans' exchange theory suggests that, it overemphasized hedonistic utilitarian notions which assume that man tends to maximize pleasure and minimize pain, and failed to define and classify "rewards" and "costs" in a manner that these could be empirically testable. In Abrahamson's view, this made the theory "a system of all-encompassing principles closely akin to classical hedonism". (Abrahamson, 1970:243). Despite its shortcomings, he stresses that there seems to be a heuristic value in Homans' hedonistic thesis which may prove helpful for studying social behaviour. Another critic of exchange theory points out that,

"If our exchange theorists simply borrowed existing theories from economics and game theory and applied them more or less as they stood to the exchange of conformity for approval or of advice for status, the task of exposition and evaluation would be relatively simple. Sometimes rightly and sometimes wrongly, however, the sociologists have not been content to leave well alone. They modify the assumptions, add new propositions and, much less excusably, devise new terminologies of their own. Homans is the prime culprit here. While he sets out, reasonably enough, to borrow propositions from other disciplines rather than to invent his own, he decides to borrow both from economics and from Skinner's behavioural psychology. This too might have been useful enough but Homans then decides to amalgamate the two sets of propositions in a hybrid terminology that grates on the ear of economists, psychologist and sociologist alike". (Heath, 1976:4)

In general, Heath suggests that exchange theorists overemphasize on the implicit rationality of

economic man, without considering, the alternative courses of action open to the actors in the exchange situation and, sometimes, ignoring other important variables such as the individual's values, beliefs, and the situational context of the exchange. Rather than reflecting totally the rational choice approach for explaining behaviour, or claiming that it is an effective model for analyzing complex situations where it is not precise what is being exchanged, Heath suggests that there might be a variant of the rational approach. This variant would take into account both the behaviour determined by the environment, in the Skinnerian tradition, and the behaviour influenced by the individuals' innate drives, unconscious desires and other "non-rational" variables. As he has indicated, if an individual "chooses to minimax rather than maximize expected utility, that is his own business". (Heath, 1976:177).

Blau's (1964) theory of social exchange distinguishes between social and economic exchange. Social exchange processes are viewed within the framework of the institutionalized systems of values of the society, which sometimes, sets aside the immediate rewards considerations in exchange relationships between individuals. For instance, a professional might provide professional advice for a friend without

any immediate recompense. Although the nature of the return is not specified, perhaps, according to the value system of the society, there is an implicit future obligation, by the recipient, to reciprocate the favour. On the other hand, Blau sees economic exchange as a special case of the phenomenon of exchange.

In the economic exchange relationship there is an exact specification of the obligations incurred by each party. When goods are traded in the market the price institutionalizes the exchange relationship, and both parties know what is expected from each other. According to Heath (1971), exchange transactions tend to be more successful when both parties adopt instrumental behaviours. In other words, when the parties view the exchange relationship as means to achieve their specific goals. In cases where it is not clear what is being exchanged, such as gift-exchange between two persons, it is more difficult to assess the success of the transaction.

In general terms, it seems that the basic difference between Blau and Homans' theories of exchange is that the former conceptualizes unconditional rewards for the establishment of exchange relationships, while the latter assumes conditional rewards.

Thibaut and Kelly's (1959) view of the

exchange process focusses on the dyadic interactions of individuals. Each party is assumed to have a repertoire of behaviours which might be used depending on the circumstances of the interaction process. In their opinion, the outcomes of an exchange relationship between two individuals is a function of their mutual behaviours. Using an analogy from economic analysis, Thibaut and Kelly hypothesized the notion of rewards and costs of the exchange between individuals. Rewards are defined as the satisfactions derived from the exchange, while the costs are seen as the factors which might inhibit the performance of a particular behaviour sequence. The notion of rewards and costs involved in exchange relationships was also recognized by Homans. (1950).

The exchange model utilized in this research was derived from Homans' social exchange theory. Basically, it assumes that a conditional reward for both the individual and the organization, will increase the likelihood of satisfactory outcomes for both parties. However, it is important to point out that, although the deductive logic of this model was adapted from Homans' theoretical framework, the level of analysis utilized here is different from that used for explaining interpersonal behaviour. This model focusses on the exchange relationships between

individuals and organizations.

Under the exchange model, the organization offers individuals various forms of monetary, material and social incentives, in exchange for the achievement of its goals. Monetary incentive such as pay, is considered by some organizational theorists as a method of encouraging individuals to perform tasks related to the accomplishment of organizational objectives and, at the same time, as being personal goals for most individuals. Social incentives such as considerate treatment from superiors and opportunities to engage in formal social relations with other members of the organization are also considered as exchange mechanisms. These social incentives seem to be implicitly supported as exchange mechanisms by the Human Relations Theorists who attributed importance to such incentives for the individuals. (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939). However, some theorists suggest that the organization might use social incentives as substitutes for monetary rewards (Bendix and Fisher, 1961). Other writers, argue on the contrary, and view the application of social incentives as an important aspect of the relationship between the individual and his supervisors. For example, Sayles and Strauss posit that,

"The personal, man-to-man relationship between a boss and his subordinates has a lot to do with the way subordinates view their jobs. Since employees are dependent on their boss, it is all-important for them to feel that he approves of both their work and themselves as individuals. A feeling of approval is an adult version of the child's feeling that his parents love him." (Sayles and Strauss, 1960: 186).

Other organizational theorists implicitly seem to use the exchange model for explaining the integration between organization and individual interests. The most prominent supporters of the exchange model in organizations are the representatives of the classical school. For instance, discussing the Principles of Scientific Management, and particularly commenting on "the two leading objectives of management", Taylor seemed to state clearly his interpretation of the economic interests of the individuals and those of organizations:

"Scientific management, has for its very foundation the firm conviction that the true interests of the two are one and the same; that prosperity for the employer cannot exist

through a long term of years unless it is accompanied by prosperity for the employee and vice versa; and that it is possible to give the workman what he most wants - high wages - and the employer what he wants - a low labour cost - for his manufactures". (Taylor, 1911: 10).

When Taylor introduced the piecework system of pay he linked the individuals' earnings to their levels of production. He assumed that the individuals' main goals were their wages. Taylor conditioned their earnings to the fulfillment of the organization's objectives, or high levels of production. This seems to be a clear example of contingencial rewards, as defined by Homans' (1950; 1958) social exchange theory.

Max Weber considers, less explicitly than Taylor, the relationship between the individual and the organization in terms of exchange. Marcus and House point out:

"In the Weberian model, compliance is assumed to be given in exchange for job security and a career producing increasing power, prestige and material benefits" (Marcus and House, 1973: 209).

March and Simon also appear to support the notion of exchange relationships between individuals and organizations in the traditions of the classical school. They argue that,

1. "An organization is a system of interrelated social behaviours of a number of persons whom we shall call the participants in the organization.

2. Each participant and each group of participants receives from the organization inducements in return for which he makes to the organization contributions.

3. Each participant will continue his participation in an organization only as long as the inducements offered him are as great or greater (measured in terms of his values and in terms of the alternatives open to him) than the contributions he is asked to make".
(March and Simon, 1958: 84).

March and Simon's view of exchange or their inducement-contribution theory, include several mechanisms such as salary, various monetary incentives, the nature of the job, working conditions, etc. The individuals' level of satisfaction is assumed to be a

function of the extent to which inducements as perceived by the employees exceed their involvements. Thus, this also appears to be the application of Homans' (1950) concepts of rewards and costs involved in exchange relationships.

Summarizing the overview of the theoretical framework on the exchange model:

1. Social exchange theory, as most subjects in the social sciences, is not represented by a unified body of systematically interrelated propositions. Thus, there are many manifestations and interpretations of the subject, using a variety of styles, approaches and conceptions. (Singelman 1972). The only common agreement between social exchange theorists, seems to be the acknowledgement of the relationship between social exchange and economic behaviour. (Ekeh, 1974). Although there are some differences of opinion in relation to the relative importance of economic motives in the social exchange process, it seems generally agreed that the economic factor exerts some influence in the process.

2. From the overview of the literature there appears to be links between social and economic interactions. Although the nature of the interrelationship is not clear, it seems reasonable to assume that both social and economic factors appear to affect the exchange relationships between individuals and organizations. Within this context, the representatives of the classical (Taylor, Weber, etc) and neo-classical schools of thought, (Simon) appear to support implicitly the use of exchange mechanisms for integrating individual and organizational interests.

2.3 THE SOCIALIZATION MODEL

In the previous section, the notion of exchange between the individual and the organization was linked to concepts emanated from social exchange theory and the classical and neo-classical theories of organization. In this section, an attempt will be made to provide a theoretical framework for the socialization model, through an overview of the Human Relations School and a review of the concept of socialization.

With the Hawthorne's study (Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939) a new school of thought emerged in organizational theory. The "Human Relations School" main characteristic was the notion of responsiveness of the organization to individuals' needs and expectations, as opposed to the classical school which generally considered individuals as isolated pieces of the organizational machine, and only motivated by monetary incentives. As a result of the first ideas put forward by this new school, special attention was given to the social work environment, stressing the importance of the interactions between the individual and his peer group and supervisors.

William Foot White (1961) summarizes Elton Mayo's views on the motivational assumptions of the

individuals, the importance of social relationships on the work environment and the effect of functional specialization in organizations, which, in general, challenged the prevailing theories of individual and organizational behaviour:

"1. The economic incentive is not the only motivating force to which the worker responds. In fact, he often holds back his production to a point well below his physical capacity even when he is on a piece rate and could make more money with more production. His production is importantly influenced by his relations with other workers and by his personal problems inside and outside the plant.

2. The worker does not respond as an isolated individual. He is a member of a group, and the face-to-face relations he experiences have a great effect upon his behaviour. Wherever men work together, they tend to build up an informal organization which may not follow the lines of the formal organization as established by management.

3. Extreme functional specialization does not

necessarily create the most efficient organization. Mayo and his associates did not give great attention to this point, but, in their study of the bank wiring room, they noted that the wiremen and soldermen frequently exchanged jobs, contrary to management's policy. These job exchanges had no adverse effects upon production and seemed to raise the morale of the entire work group". (White, 1961, 102).

In later writings, other ideas contributed for the extension of the Human Relations School, specially those of Maslow, (1943, 1954, 1968) emphasizing individuals' higher level need satisfaction. Maslow's theory of human needs suggests that individuals are motivated in a sequential hierarchical pattern, from the lowest to highest needs as follows:

1. Psychological/Basic Needs. Hunger, thirst, shelter, clothing, sex, etc.
2. Safety Needs. Security, protection from physical harm, etc.

3. Affiliation/Social Needs. Friendship, affection, acceptance etc.

4. Esteem/Ego Needs. Self respect, respect of others, etc.

5. Self Actualization Needs, or "the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming". (Maslow, 1954:92).

The basic assumption of Maslow's need hierarchy theory seems to be the notion that human beings initially attempt to satisfy their fundamental needs and then proceed to higher needs such as personal stability, love, affection, recognition, self-fulfillment, etc. He states that,

"If all the needs are unsatisfied, the organism is then dominated by the physiological needs, all other needs may become simply nonexistent or be pushed into the background. It is then fair to characterize the whole organism by saying simply it is hungry, for consciousness is almost completely pre-empted by hunger. All capacities are put into the service of hunger-satisfaction, and the organization of

these capacities is almost entirely determined by the one purpose of satisfying hunger...". (Maslow, 1954:92)

As regards the applicability of Maslow's need hierarchy theory in organizational behaviour, Wahba and Bridwell (1973) suggest that it represents an interesting paradox. Although the theory has become very popular in the organizational behaviour literature there is, at the same time, little empirical evidence to support it. In a review intended to assess the empirical validity of Maslow's theory they indicated that:

a) Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory is both a theory of human needs and a general theory of human motivation. Maslow, a psychologist, derived his theory from clinical observations of individuals.

b) Although Maslow's Theory has received little or inconsistent empirical support from the organizational theorists, there are many conceptual, methodological and measurement problems involved in its empirical testing. Among these problems is the lack of conceptual agreement on what needs are, and

whether they can, if at all, be structured in a hierarchical way. In addition, Wahba and Bridwell indicate that there is some evidence suggesting that human behaviour might not necessarily be linked to the satisfaction of "needs" (Harlow, 1953; White, 1959). Vroom (1964), for instance, avoids the notion of "needs" in a strict sense and proposes the idea of "motives". Another problem in verifying Maslow's theory concerns the methods utilized in testing its validity. The theory utilizes the individual as the unit of analysis, while most organizational studies employed the group as the unit of investigation. Furthermore, Maslow's theory is dynamic, while most studies focused in its static aspects, except a few longitudinal researches. While Maslow's theory is based on causal logic, most studies attempted to deal with the matter utilizing correlation analysis, which is inappropriate for establishing causality between variables. In most of the studies included in their review, they noted a reliance on self-reporting techniques rather than observable methods of analyzing behaviour, and the existence of at

least six different scales of measurement with varying degrees of reliability and validity.

c) It is very difficult to validate Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory, for two basic reasons. First, the theory practically defies empirical testing. Second, because of the conceptual, methodological and measurement problems summarized above.

Argyris, (1957) Viteles, (1953) Schein, (1965) Leavitt (1964) and other organizational theorists generally appear to support Maslow's theory of human needs in their writings and seem to agree that individuals vary in relation to their need levels. Some modifications to Maslow's view of human needs have been put forward by Herzberg (1968) and Alderfer (1969). Herzberg suggests the existence of two motivational levels denominated as maintenance or hygiene and motivational factors, and compiled some variables assumed to influence these two levels. Alderfer proposes three levels of human needs described as existence, relatedness and growth. Existence needs include basic physiological and material needs, such as hunger, payment for work, job security, etc. Relatedness needs involve the individual's need for

social relationships, acceptance, etc. Growth needs are characterized by human desires for expansion of creative and productive abilities. One fundamental difference between Alderfer and Maslow's views of human needs is that the former does not assume that the satisfaction of lower-order needs is a prerequisite for the higher-order needs.

Other theorists who may be considered as representatives of the Human Relations School include Argyris (1957, 1964), McGregor, (1957, 1960) and Likert, (1961, 1967). Argyris points out that the needs and abilities of the individuals are not congruent with the demands of the organizations. He suggests that

"Organizations are willing to pay higher wages and provide adequate security if mature adults will, for eight hours a day, behave in a less than mature manner". (Argyris, 1957:66).

Explaining his view on the presumed lack of congruency between individual and organizational interests, he argues that:

"The formal organization (which includes the technology) and the administrative control

system typically used in complex formal organizations may be viewed as part of a grand strategy to organize human efforts to achieve specific objectives, and this strategy is based on such "principles" of administration as specialization of work, chain of command, unity of direction, and span of control. The strategy creates a complex of organizational demands that tend to require individuals to experience dependence and submissiveness and the utilize few of their relatively peripheral abilities. The degree of dependency, submissiveness and so on, tends to increase as one goes down the chain of command and as the job requirements and managerial controls direct the individual. They decrease as one goes up the chain of command and as the individual is able to control the job requirements" (Argyris, 1964:58).

McGregor (1960) put forward theory X and Y. In general terms, theory X supports the classical theorists' assumptions of rationality and assumes that individuals dislike work, have to be forced to meet organizational goals, and usually prefer being directed

rather than facing risks and responsibilities. On the other hand, theory Y assumes that work is natural to human beings; individuals may reach a state of self motivation and commitment to organizational goals; employees frequently learn how to accept responsibilities; commitment is a function of the individuals' level of rewards received from the organization; and that in modern organizations the potentialities, creativity and innovativeness of individuals are partially realized. Based on these contrasting assumptions, McGregor suggests that theory Y seems to be more successful in organizational environments where there is general co-ordination of activities, decentralization, less control and coercion, and more participative styles of management.

Filley, House and Kerr summarize the Human Relations School's approach as follows:

"There are many prescriptions, shared by almost all of the human relations theorists, which are in direct contrast to prescriptions of the classical school: emphasis on teamwork and development of voluntary cooperation as opposed to coordination through supervision; control reliance on voluntary assumption of responsibility as opposed to assignment of

responsibility by supervisors; enriched jobs consisting of broadened and varied individual duties as opposed to narrow specialization; accountability to peers instead of to supervisors; a broadened span of control to encourage delegation of responsibility and general rather than close supervision; emphasis on group decision making rather than 'top down' decision making; and the use of informal norms rather than rules and policies to guide and coordinate efforts" (Filley, House and Kerr, 1975: 272)

According to Child (1954) individuals are born with unlimited potential for developing various types of behaviour during their life, but through the process of socialization are led to adopt certain behavioural patterns which are acceptable for their environment. As Danziger (1971) sees it, this process is an active intervention in the life of the individuals by social agents who seek to mould them. In Mangham's view,

"Socialization is a pervasive and essential societal process. Through this process ... each of us becomes a human being, learning the habits, skill, beliefs, and mores of our

particular class, ethnic group and nationality. We learn these things sometimes consciously as in school and church and, in many cases unconsciously simply through our association with fellow members of the community. Organizations, too, engage in the socialization of their members, sometimes consciously as in induction and training programmes, more often unconsciously by passing on to novitiates 'this is the way we do things around here'." (Mangham, 1979:78-79).

To Brim and Wheeler socialization is defined as the process by which individuals develop the requisite orientation for a satisfactory functioning in a role (Brim and Wheeler, 1966).

A broad view of the socialization process is provided by Berger and Luckman (1967), Bensman and Rosenberg (1967), and Newcombe (1948). They include under the term "socialization" the learning of any and all aspects of the culture including the jobs of others which are not directly relevant to the person doing the learning.

Berger and Luckman (1967) and Brim and

Wheeler (1966) distinguish between primary and secondary socialization. Primary socialization is viewed as the process by which individuals develop their basic personality characteristics. Secondary socialization is considered as the process by which individuals acquire specific behaviours, attitudes and values suited to a particular occupation or position in society. Brim and Wheeler suggest that the secondary socialization process requires less fundamental changes in the individuals than those required in the primary stage, but it is largely dependent upon the values attitudes and behaviour learned during primary socialization. Thus, they propose that the secondary stage is more a process of behavioural conformity and cognitive learning than an identification process.

Schein (1961, 1965, 1968, 1971) one of the prominent investigators of the process of socialization in organizations, defines the concept of socialization as:

"... the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms and the required behaviour patterns of the society, organization or group which he is entering".
(Schein, 1968:3).

Schein (1971) distinguishes between the following types of socialization in organizational settings:

1. Acculturation or Adult Socialization. Refers to the process by which the organization influences, indoctrinates and trains the individuals. This process is normally implemented by informing the individuals about the norms, values and expected behaviour patterns for organizational members. Normally this process is more intensive during the early stages of the individuals' careers, when the organizational influence is, presumably, at a maximum. It involves, among other things, information on:

- a) The objectives or macro-goals of the organization;
- b) The preferred means by which the organizational goals should be achieved;
- c) The specific responsibilities involved in the particular role;

d) The expected behaviour patterns, from the point of view of the organization;

e) The norms, rules and procedures required for the maintenance of the organizational identity and integrity.

2. Innovation. Assuming that individuals are not passive agents during the moulding of their behaviours, Schein (1968, 1971) termed innovation the process by which individuals exert influence on the organization during their careers. Schein hypothesized that, although the socialization and innovation processes occur at all stages of the individuals' careers, the individuals' influence on the organization tends to be at a maximum in the later stages of their careers. Bakke clarifies this possible mutual influence process as follows: "... the organization attempts to make every individual conform completely to its demands; that is, to make an agent of the individual for the realization of the organizational objectives, ... simultaneously the individual tries to seek self-expression; that is, to

make an agency of the organization for the realization of personal objectives". (Cited in Argyris, 1954:267). In the literature, the individuals' attempt to influence the organization is sometimes referred to as individualization, (Porter et al., 1975) and personalization (Bakke, 1953).

Regarding the presumed stages through which neophytes learn about the values, goals, and policies of the organization, Schein hypothesized the following phases of the socialization process:

1. Unfreezing. Refers to the process by which the organization attempts to eliminate from the entrants previous attitudes, ideas and values which are considered inadequate for his role in the organization. Basically it involves a process of redefinition of values to match the organizational roles. This phase is considered unpleasant for the new member and requires strong individual motivation or "strong organizational forces to make the person endure it" (Katz and Kahn, 1966).

2. Obtaining commitment. Refers to the

process by which the organization applies various mechanisms for building commitment in the new members. This involves investment of time and effort in the new employee, and the eliciting of desired behaviour patterns.

3. Transition to full membership. Refers to the last phase of the socialization process which the new employees of the organization acquire the status of full members, presumably incorporating the organizational values, norms and behaviour patterns into his identity. This may be achieved by a promotion or initiation rites after which the individual is assured of his acceptance in the organizational circles.

In Schein's view, each stage is not necessarily a prerequisite for the other. Some stages may be omitted, overlapped or combined for producing the desired effects according to the circumstances, and organizational settings.

Schein (1968) recognizes that the process of socialization may not produce the desired effects; sometimes it is 'inadequate', sometimes 'excessive'. Inadequate socialization is assumed to result in non-committed employees, or individuals who do not

internalize the organizational goals, norms, expected behaviour patterns, and the "pivotal" values of the organization, i.e., belief in the free enterprise system, private initiative, the market system of competition, etc. On the other hand, excessive socialization, might result in individuals who are 'overcommitted' to the organization. In Schein's view excessive socialization might create what Bate and Mangham (1981) call "trained incapacities", i.e., individuals who are unable to offer new ideas to the organization because their creativity has been overinduced by the organization. The balance between inadequate and excessive socialization is what Schein calls "creative individualism", or the internalization of the "pivotal" values and the rejection of other relatively less critical organizational norms and values.

As Katz and Kahn (1966) indicated, socialization appears to be a continuous dynamic process. Thus, individuals possibly continue to adjust to the organization for the duration of their employment, when they are promoted or, transferred to other jobs and, perhaps, even when they join other organizations. (Schein, 1968). The time dimension of the socialization process is also emphasized by Caplow when he states that "the behaviours appropriate to an

organizational position are not required but are learned and relearned throughout the length of a career" (Caplow, 1964:169)

Bowers and Seashore provide an example of the use of socialization mechanisms as "goal emphasis". In their "Four-Factor Theory of Leadership" they conceptualized leadership in terms of four social-process functions or types of behaviour described as:

"1. Support. Behaviour that enhances someone else's feeling of personal worth and importance.

2. Interaction facilitation. Behaviour that encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.

3. Goal emphasis. Behaviour that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal or achieving excellent performance.

4. Work facilitation. Behaviour that helps achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, co-ordinating, planning, and by providing resources such as tools, materials, and technical knowledge. (Bowers and Seashore, 1966:247).

In their view, the four types of behaviour listed above are related to organizational effectiveness and may be generated by "anyone in a work group for anyone else in that work group". Thus, they argue that these functions may be provided by formal or informal leaders or individual members of the group. The "goal emphasis" factor is particularly important in relation to the socialization model, since it involves leader and peer socialization mechanisms as means of meeting the goals of the organization. However, assuming that the four types of behaviour might be used or stimulated by the organization for the purpose of obtaining the individuals' acceptance and commitment to the organization's goals, perhaps, in a broad sense, all four factors could be utilized as socialization mechanisms.

The establishment of high performance goals by supervisors as means of setting examples for the subordinates for the achievement of organizational goals appears to be another way of applying socialization mechanisms. For instance, Likert argues that,

"A superior with high performance goals and excellent job organization is much more likely to have subordinates who set high

goals for themselves and organize their work well when he uses group methods of supervision and applies the principle of supportive relationships effectively than when he does not" (Likert, 1967:63).

Blake and Mouton's (1964) approach to identifying leadership styles through the "managerial grid", helps to support the notion of individuals' socialization for the achievement of organizational goals. According to the "managerial grid" technique, the various combinations between concern for people and concern for production, measured in a nine-point scale along the vertical and horizontal axes respectively, are assumed to be indicators of leadership styles. Thus, the "9.9" managerial style indicates a high concern for people and production matters, simultaneously. Presumably, this combination characterizes a manager who emphasizes the involvement of the individuals in open discussion of organizational problems in an attempt to commit the employees towards achieving the production levels, or organizational goals. This method of influencing the individuals in adopting the organizational goals seems to be an example of the use of socialization mechanisms in organizational settings.

Kelman (1958, 1961) provides a framework for analyzing the responses of the individuals to the social influence processes. Adapting his framework for the socialization process in organizational settings, the following types of reactions to the organization's induced behaviour can be distinguished:

a) Compliance. Occurs when the individual adopts the organization's induced behaviour not because he believes in its specific contents, but because the expected benefits (i.e. monetary gains, acceptance, status, etc) seem to be greater than the anticipated costs (i.e. being fired from the job, lack of status, etc.). Thus, in general terms, compliance represents a conformity to the organization value system, rather than a match with the individual's private beliefs.

b) Identification. Occurs when the individual accepts the induced behaviour because he desires to establish and maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship to the organization. For instance, if a bank employee believes that his professional identity is linked to the 'Banco do Brazil', he will adopt the induced behaviour because

he considers it to be relevant and necessary for performing his role in order to meet the Bank's expectations. The major difference between identification and compliance is that in the former process the individual actually believes in the adopted actions, even if their specific contents are not intrinsically rewarding per se.

c) Internalization. Occurs when the individual adopts the induced behaviour because its contents are both congruent with his beliefs and intrinsically satisfying. One example of internalization is a priest who decides to adopt the induced behaviour because it fits into his value system, and he perceives the church as a credible source of influence.

According to Kelman (1958, 1961), the probability of accepting influence from the organization is a combined function of the individual's perceived importance of the effect of the process, the relative power of the organization to implement the process, and the prepotency of the induced response. In addition, he stresses that these three types of responses are not mutually exclusive. Therefore, in

reality, they usually do not occur in their pure forms, but tend to coexist with the predominance of a particular kind. In Kelman's view, behaviour adopted through these processes may be abandoned, for instance, if it is no longer perceived as instrumental for the achievement of the individual goals (compliance); if it is no longer perceived as the best way to maintaining a satisfying self-defining relationship with the organization (individualization); or if it is no longer perceived as intrinsically rewarding for the individual's value system (internalization).

Summarizing the overview of the theoretical framework on the socialization model:

In general, human relations theorists challenge the classical assumptions of individual behaviour as economically motivated and rational. Human relations writers emphasize the non-monetary rewards of work such as personal interactions, relationships with peers and supervisors, personal growth and development, satisfaction of individual needs, etc. Presumably these non-material aspects of work lead to a more satisfied personnel and eventually to a better integration between individual and

organizational interests.

The concept of socialization considered in this research involves the mechanisms and influence processes utilized by the organization for obtaining the employees' acceptance of the norms, values, goals of the organization. Thus, the model used here is basically a social influence model, involving the following:

1. Socialization mechanisms. Refer to the various mechanisms utilized by the organization during the socialization process. These may be subdivided into two categories as follows:

1.1 Leader socialization. Under this category are involved all the socialization mechanisms utilized by the individuals' formal leaders, i.e., personal orientation, modelling behaviour, instruction on the organization's policies, norms, regulations etc.

1.2 Peer socialization. This category includes all socialization mechanisms applied through peers of new and continuing employees

of the organization i.e., personal training leading to the adoption of desired behaviours, apprenticeship programmes, personal examples, etc.

2. Positive Socialization. Refers to the process by which the organization attempts to mould the individual behaviour through persuasion, examples of conduct, informing the entrants about the norms, rules, policies and goals of the organization etc.

3. Negative Socialization. Refers to the process by which individuals are led to give up former attitudes, values and goals which conflict with the organizational objectives or desired standards of behaviour. An example of negative socialization is what Katz and Kahn (1966) and Schein (1968) termed the "unfreezing" stage of socialization process for new members of the organization. Negative socialization is also referred to as "mortification" and "debasement experiences" (Porter et al, 1975).

4. The direction of influence. Apparently, individuals are not passive agents in the

process of socialization and also attempt to influence the organization in accepting their goals, values, attitudes and behaviours. Thus, the socialization activity appears to be a two-way process with both the individuals and the organization trying to exert influence on each other.

5. Continuity over time. The process of learning and adopting, or rejecting, the norms, rules, expected behaviour patterns, the macro-goals and the organizational pivotal values, seems to be a continuous, dynamic activity. In general, the socialization process transcends the organizational boundaries, since individuals become socialized, conscious or unconsciously throughout their lives and careers.

6. Changes in behaviour over time. The adoption of the induced behaviour by individuals does not necessarily imply a permanent change in behaviour. Each individual attributes a particular meaning to the influence of the organization and reacts in a personal way according to his

perceptions and system of values. Thus, if the motivational basis of the induced behaviour changes over time, individuals are likely to modify their responses towards the socialization efforts of the organization.

2.4 THE ACCOMMODATION MODEL

This section attempts to provide a frame of reference and a set of concepts for analyzing and discussing the accommodation model.

In the accommodation model, the organization takes into consideration and stimulates individuals' involvement and participation in organizational affairs. Individual needs, abilities, interests and goals are taken into account in designing organizational roles, solving problems, establishing goals for the organization, etc. The basic assumption underlying this model is that by accommodating the objectives, procedures and processes to the individuals' interests, the pursuit of organizational objectives might be intrinsically rewarding for the individuals and beneficial for the organization. Thus a theoretical framework for this model will be provided through an overview of the concepts of "job design", "participation", and other mechanisms which apparently take into consideration the individuals' abilities, needs and expectations. Generally, these mechanisms seem to be linked with the writings of the "Human Relations" theorists.

According to Paul, Robertson and Herzberg,

"Job enrichment seeks to improve both task efficiency and human satisfaction by means of building into people's jobs, quite specifically, greater scope for personal achievement and its recognition, more challenging and responsible work, and more opportunity for individual advancement and growth. It is concerned only incidentally with matters such as pay, working conditions, organizational structure, communications and training, important and necessary though these may be in their own right". (Paul, Robertson and Herzberg, 1969:61).

Herzberg and his associates distinguish between "job enlargement and job enrichment". For them, "job enlargement" means an horizontal expansion of the employee's job, namely, the individual receives more of the same type of activity, without altering the set of skills and abilities required for the job. On the other hand, "job enrichment" means a vertical expansion of the individual's job, involving increased skills and abilities.

Another view of horizontal and vertical aspects of job design is provided by Filley, House and Kerr. (1975). They propose a distinction between

altering individual's job depth or modifying its scope. In their opinion job depth "refers to the degree to which job occupants are able to influence their work environment and can plan and execute their work without control or supervision from others". This ability to influence the work environment differs from job scope, defined as the number of operations performed by the employees. For them, altering the vertical dimension of a job means changing its depth, or what Herzberg and others call "job enrichment". Changing the horizontal dimension, means modifying the scope of an activity, or what Herzberg and others call "job enlargement".

To Mintzberg, (1979:75) horizontal job enlargement means the individuals' involvement "in a wide variety of the tasks associated with producing products and services". As an example of horizontal enlargement, he suggests changing the sequence of tasks, interchanging jobs with colleagues, etc. He views vertical job enlargement as increasing the number of tasks performed and gaining more control over them, i.e., when some workers are responsible for the assembly of a motor car they may also be given the power to take some decisions related to production, planning, scheduling, etc.

According to Argyris (1964), "job enlargement" may be studied in the light of personality

theory, taking into account the individual's interests, needs, and abilities. He emphasizes the importance of analyzing the abilities of the individuals in terms of motoric, cognitive and conative aspects, assuming that each individual has a specific range of these capabilities, varying from minimum to maximum competence, during particular periods of life. Traditionally, he suggests, classical organizations tended to concentrate on the motoric abilities of the individuals in redesigning of jobs, and overlooked the other dimensions. He hypothesizes that "if the possibilities for psychological success and organizational success are to increase, the enlargement of jobs ... must include the rise of significant portions of the cognitive and conative abilities" (Argyris, 1964:230). In his view, some mechanisms for job enlarging include providing challenging tasks for the individuals, promoting individuals' participation in decision-making processes, electing representatives at higher organizational levels, increasing the employee's responsibilities, allowing individuals to resolve intergroup problems, giving the individuals the opportunity to increase their share of the total output, increasing the individuals' autonomy in his work, allowing employees to take decisions related to the quality standards of the product or service

involved, etc. Thus, Argyris's (1964) notion of job enlargement involves what other authors (Herzberg et al., 1969) designate as job enrichment.

Although the distinction between "job enrichment" and "job enlargement" has been put forward by Herzberg and others (1969) and redefined by Filley and others (1975), the terms are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature. Considering that the distinction between the concepts of "job enlargement" and "job enrichment" is not very clear, (Filley et al., 1975) perhaps, as Mintzberg (1979) has suggested, the introduction of a broader expression such as "The quality of working life", or simply the acronym "QWL", may solve some semantic problems related to the use of these terms.

Hackman and his associates (1979) theory of job redesign within organizational contexts, supports the importance of job enrichment as a tool for increasing the overlap between individual and organizational goals. Based on management practice and psychological theory, they put forward the "motivating potential score" which attempts to indicate what particular types of jobs tend to promote excitement and commitment about work and what kinds of individuals are suited for them. Assuming that the interests of the individuals such as their desire for personal

accomplishment and growth are the key moderating variables in a job enrichment programme, the "motivating potential score" is an index which takes into account some variables, or indicators, of psychological states. Presumably, the following variables are critical in determining the employee's motivation and satisfaction at work:

1. Experienced meaningfulness of the work. This refers to the individuals' perceived worthiness or importance of the work, which is a function of the following three variables:

- 1.1 Skill variety, or the extent to which the individual perceives his work as a challenge to his skills and abilities.

- 1.2 Task Identity, or the extent to which the job is seen as a part of a whole or an identifiable product or service.

- 1.3 Task significance, or the extent to which the individual perceives his function as having a significant impact in the organization, in society, etc.

2. Experienced responsibility for the outcome

of the work. This refers to the extent to which the job gives the individual autonomy, in terms of freedom, independence and chances for taking his own decisions regarding how to schedule and develop the work, etc.

3. Knowledge of the actual results of the work activities. This refers to the extent to which the individual gets information and feedback from his work.

Theoretically, the combination of these five dimensions, moderated by the individuals' level of growth needs is assumed to determine whether the characteristics of the job will prompt the employee's internal work motivation and satisfaction. This assumes that these five variables can, to some extent, be manipulated or stimulated. Apparently, in practice, from the point of view of the organization, the moderating variables or the individuals' desire for personal accomplishment and growth, still remain "uncontrollable".

Commenting on the difficulties involved in job enrichment programmes and particularly those associated with individuals who had depressing experience in previous jobs, Hackman and his associates state:

"It is true that we can predict from these measures who is likely to become internally motivated on a job and who will be less willing or able to do so. But what we do not know yet is whether or not the growth-need "spark" can be rekindled for those individuals who have had their growth needs dampened by years of growth-depressing experience in their organizations. Since it is often the organization that is responsible for currently low levels of growth desires, we believe that the organization also should provide the individual with the chance to reverse that trend whenever possible, even if that means putting a person in a job where he may be "stretched" more than he wants to be". (Hackman et al., 1979:217).

However, they recognize that this "stretching" of individuals appears to be dependent, among other things on individual differences. In addition, there are some indications suggesting that only certain types of individuals such as those with high growth needs tend to respond successfully to job enlargement programmes. (Vroom, 1960; Carol and Tosi, 1970; Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hulin, 1971, Steers,

1975). Davis (1946) suggested that, in general, underprivileged individuals lacked the desire for personal accomplishment and growth in their jobs. Porter (1963) found that individuals in top level positions were more concerned with higher-level need satisfaction than employees in lower positions at the organization.

Sayles and Strauss provide further support for the notion of redesigning jobs to suit the individuals' interests, abilities and personalities. They state:

"Many times it is easier to change the job than to change the person. Many behavioural attributes are too deeply ingrained to modify easily. Thus, parts of a job that are difficult for the individual to perform or on which he conflicts badly with other people may have to be removed. Jobs can, in fact, be viewed as flexible packages of component parts, at least some of which are shiftable in order to tailor the job to the needs and competencies of the individual personality who will be manning it." (Sayles and Strauss, 1960:465)

Besides the question of individual differences, there have been some criticisms on the effectiveness of role or job design programmes. For instance, Mitchell Fein (1973) raised the issue of boredom due to the work itself and, in general, rejects the whole idea of "enlarging jobs". He suggests that most jobs are acceptable to the majority of individuals because of the existence of a dual screening process. Presumably, employees initially try, for a short period, a new job, and later, according to their perception of the work and their personal goals, decide whether it would match their expectations. On the other hand, after the trial period, the organization also has an opportunity to accept or reject the prospective employee. Thus, because of this dual screening process, both the individual and the organization are assumed to have chances of evaluating each other before a long-term employment. Assuming that the employees may be classified into achievers and non-achievers, he suggests that some individuals prefer the simple, repetitive jobs, while others would rather challenging, difficult jobs. In general, he argues that, a priori, individuals react negatively to job enrichment programmes designed primarily to create a favourable attitude toward greater output for the organization, without intrinsic rewards for themselves.

Goldthorpe and associates (1968), however, in their study of attitudes of British blue-collar car-workers towards work, found no evidence to support the notion that there exists a relationship between job satisfaction and the attachment to the organization. They state:

"This attachment appears rather to be based upon predominantly extrinsic - that is to say, economic-considerations. The level of pay was the reason by far most frequently given by respondents for staying in their present work, being referred to by 65% of the more skilled men and 67% of the semi-skilled. Moreover, 87% of the former group and 82% of the latter explained their attachment in part at least by reference to economic considerations of one kind or another - level of pay, degree of security, or extent of 'fringe' benefits". (Goldthorpe et al, 1968:144-145).

In Luton's industrial environment, most workers sought employment in an attempt to acquire higher standards of living for their families. According to Rose's view of Goldthorpe's study, under a

favourable economic conjuncture, workers tend to "shop around" in an attempt to find a job "which provides a mixture of rewards which matches most closely an ordered set of personal priorities" (Rose, 1978:237). In general terms, Goldthorpe and his associates suggested that most workers analyzed tended to view work in an instrumental way. In other words, they viewed work primarily as an instrument for a continued improvement in the standard of living, rather than a source of satisfaction for their high order needs.

The notion of a mutual concern with individual and organizational interests in designing organizational activities is explicit in the accommodation model. It assumes that if the organization adapts the procedures, jobs, etc., to the individuals' interests, this might be intrinsically rewarding for the individuals and, at the same time, beneficial for the organization, in terms of an enlarged degree of goal integration. The preoccupation with the interests of the individuals and those of the organization in redesigning jobs seems to be recognized by Hackman and his associates. They state:

"We believe that job enrichment is moving beyond the stage where it can be considered "yet another management fad". Instead, it

represents a potentially powerful strategy for change that can help organizations achieve their goals for higher quality work - and at the same time further the equally legitimate needs of contemporary employees for a more meaningful work experience ... The effectiveness of job enrichment is likely to be enhanced when the tasks of diagnosing and changing jobs are undertaken collaboratively by management and the employees whose work will be affected" (Hackman et al., 1979).

Perhaps inspired by Montesquieu's (1952) classification of powers of the state into executive, legislative and judicial, Katz and Kahn (1966) proposed a democratic alternative to the traditional hierarchical structure, based on the principle of separation between executive, and legislative powers. According to Katz and Kahn, traditionally, in autocratic organizations, policy formulation and implementation have been combined in the top levels of the organizational hierarchy. On the other hand, in democratic organizations, the executive and legislative structure function separately. Individual members of

the organization may have a vote in important organizational matters, such as the selection of the chief executive officers, setting policies, choosing between alternative leadership policies, etc. In addition, the membership has veto power over administrative decisions put forward by the executive structure. According to Katz and Kahn,

"The essential difference between a democratic and an authoritarian system is not whether executive officers order or consult with those below them but whether the power to legislate on policy is vested in the membership or in the top echelons" (Katz and Kahn 1966:58).

Regarding the forms of individuals' participation in the organization, Katz and Kahn suggest that,

"The critical condition for producing organizational identification through the activities of the organization itself is participation in decision making and the sharing of rewards. If people are involved in determining policies and share in the returns from collective effort , they regard the

organization as of their own making." (Katz and Kahn, 1966:378).

By advocating the individuals' involvement in decision making and their financial participation in the profits of the enterprise Katz and Kahn appear to suggest the use of these forms of participation as accommodation mechanisms. According to the OECD (1975), although the question of financial participation differs in character from the other forms of employee's participation in organizational affairs, this seems to be a key variable in promoting the employee's greater involvement with the organization. Broadly speaking, two basic forms of financial participation are distinguished by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. First, employee's participation in profits of the enterprise. A relatively small number of Western European companies have introduced profit sharing schemes voluntarily, while in some countries such as France and West Germany similar schemes have been enacted by legislation. Second, employee's participation in the ownership of the enterprise. In the OECD's view financial participation in the form of capital-sharing schemes whereby employees acquire a percentage of ownership of the company, has ample socio-political and

organizational implications. Among other things, employee's participation in ownership of the enterprise, in a large scale, can mean, in the long term, structural changes in the balance of wealth and power of the countries involved. As regards the organizational implications, the OECD suggests that capital-sharing schemes can promote a more favourable view of the profit motive among employees, and to bring about an increased degree of identification with the organization. Chris Argyris, however, does not seem to believe that transferring part of the ownership of the enterprise to the employees would help to solve organizational problems. He states,

"...ownership does not seem to be a crucial variable as long as the basic security and physiological needs are satisfied. Indeed, under these conditions we suggest that those who require that the worker owns the impoverished world in which he exists presently may well be adding insult to injury ... workers, we predict, at best will accept such "ownership" with apathy." (Argyris, 1964: 276-277).

Nevertheless, Argyris (1957, 1964) advocates the use of job enlargement and more democratic styles

of management as approaches towards ameliorating the problems of alienation, dependence and submissiveness experienced by some individuals at work. In general, he suggests that most forms of employees' participation in the management of organizations, depend upon having individuals who are intrinsically motivated and highly interested in the organization as a whole.

From a businessman's point of view, Paul Getty provides one example of the results achieved in a financial participation experiment whereby one of his employees was given a share in the profits of his company. He states:

"As soon as George realized that he, too, had a "direct personal interest" in the properties he really hit his stride. No longer merely a salaried employee, the superintendent became keenly concerned with cutting costs, boosting production and increasing the profits in which he was to share. He viewed operations on the drilling and well sites in an entirely different light, instantly recognizing - and correcting - faults which had theretofore eluded him. (George) Miller shucked unnecessary personnel from the payroll, pared operating expenses to

the bone and used his considerable native ingenuity to devise better methods for getting the work done". (Getty, 1976:38).

In Great Britain, an interesting exercise in industrial democracy is taking place. Approximately one year ago, 10,200 employees of the 25,000 staff of a nationalized freight carrier decided to acquire 82.5 per cent of the business. Most of the remaining shares (17.5%) was acquired by a group of banks, which provided a substantial loan for the enterprise. Eight months after the employees of the National Freight Consortium had what Getty (1976) calls "a direct personal interest" in the company, it reported an unprecedented operating profit, despite the generally unfavourably economic environment in the U.K. and abroad. (Financial Times, 1983). In their first annual general meeting as shareholders, the employees saw the value of their investment double, approved a 12% dividend per share, and commemorated the occasion with jubilation. In general, to the extent that the National Freight Consortium experience can be considered a successful exercise in financial participation, it supports the notion that employee's participation in ownership can be an important mechanism for increasing the overlap between individual

and organizational interests. As Chavanes has suggested,

"Giving the worker an interest in the firm is one aspect of a policy whose ultimate aim is to transform the social relations between employers and workers in both the firm and the economy.

This form of participation is not solely a question of giving staff a pecuniary stake. It also implies allowing all who form part of the firm to become better acquainted with its organization, its activity and its history, and to appreciate the usefulness of their work as their attitude changes gradually from the passive one of the mere employee to that of the interest of the active participant." (Chavanes, 1975:76).

The idea of combining direct and financial mechanisms of participation is not new. The Scalon plan (Lesieur, 1958) envisaged a combination of these elements for increasing the possibilities of overlap between individual and organizational interests.

Bate and Mangham have indicated that a democratic form of organization represents "... a more

mature, a more grown-up way of living and one more likely to encourage maturity in its members than does an authoritarian institution." (Bate and Mangham, 1981: 12). Suggesting that the employee's widespread involvement in decision-making can possibly produce democratic, "healthy" organizations, Bate and Mangham appear to provide an example of the use of individuals' participation in organizational decision-making as an accommodation mechanism.

Likert (1967) conceptualized four management systems, based on the hypothetical autocratic-democratic continuum. He operationalized a method of measuring the management system of an organization, according to dimensions of leadership, motivation, communication, decision-making, goal-setting and control. The four systems of organizational climate were described as:

System 1. The exploitative system, or an extreme authoritarian climate;

System 2. The benevolent-authoritative system, or a less authoritarian climate;

System 3. The consultative system, or a climate characterized by some degree of consultation;

System 4. The participative system or a climate involving the employee's participation in various aspects of management of the organization.

In general terms, Likert (1961, 1967) believed that individuals' participation in organizational affairs could not be seen as an isolated process or activity, but as a continuum of processes and activities involving the employees in various aspects of management of the organization. In addition, he suggested that styles of management appear to be evolving from the exploitative or authoritarian system 1, through the benevolent and consultative systems 2 and 3, toward the participative or democratic system 4. Therefore, Likert's management theories seem to be another example of the use of participation as accommodation mechanisms.

In the "Human side of the enterprise, McGregor (1957) advocates employee's involvement in the management of the enterprise, within the framework of theory Y, which relies on self-control and self-direction of the individuals. According to McGregor,

"The essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods

of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives" (McGregor, 1957:26).

Among the mechanisms suggested by McGregor for increasing the assumed overlap between individual and organizational interests, are participation and performance appraisal. Employees' participation in organizational decisions which are related to their work presumably provide opportunities for the satisfaction of higher level needs. (Maslow, 1943, 1968). The individual's involvement in setting goals for himself and in evaluating his performance are also considered ways of increasing his self-control and self-direction in the organization. Both forms of individual's involvement in organizational affairs appear to be examples of accommodation mechanisms.

In the final report of the international management seminar on worker's participation, convened by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, (OECD) representatives of private organizations and governmental agencies found, among other things, that employees' participation was a critical variable in promoting the employees' involvement with the organization. Among possible

forms of participation, the employer's representatives generally preferred direct employee's participation. Direct participation refers to the intrinsic aspects of the work which focus on the individuals and their immediate work group. The following examples of direct participation were suggested by the OECD:

"a) Expanding individual workers' responsibilities through redesign of the work organization, through delegating of managerial functions, through flatter organizational structures. Workers themselves make decisions regarding work and/or work conditions ... which were previously made for them.

b) Introduction of semi-autonomous work groups with considerable group responsibility for task execution, ordering of raw materials, quality control, etc.

c) More participative management styles. Here managers open up the decision-making process to subordinates so that the subordinates can have an input in the decision-making.

d) Organizing work group meetings for the discussion of problems directly related to production but also for issues like shift planning, health and safety conditions, and vacations (e.g. the Japanese Quality Control Circles)." (OECD, 1975:35).

Indirect forms of participation were defined as processes and structures through which employees' elected representatives influence managerial decision-making on their behalf. (OECD, 1975). The indirect form of participation usually involves extrinsic aspects of work and aims at policy issues at higher levels of the organization. Some research findings (Holter, 1965; Hespe and Little, 1971; Wall and Lischeron, 1977; Hildendorf and Irving, 1970) have suggested that individuals usually preferred immediate, or direct, forms of participation as opposed to indirect or distant modalities. However Bate and Mangham (1981) suggested that possibly this relatively low degree of interest in indirect or distant participation schemes derives from a general lack of experience of such participation schemes. They believe that experience in participation processes at lower organizational levels might lead to an increased degree of interest in participation schemes at higher levels.

Summarizing the overview of the theoretical framework on the accommodation model:

In the management and organizational behaviour literature, the term accommodation is practically absent. However, the concept of accommodation utilized in this research sometimes appears implicitly in the literature as "job-design", "role-design", "job-enrichment", "job-enlargement" and "participation" in problem-solving, objective-setting, capital-sharing, profit-sharing and decision-making. Although these concepts have been associated as accommodation mechanisms for the purposes of this research, there appears to be no theoretical consensus as to what these concepts are. Generally, the terms "job-design", "role-design", "job-enrichment", "job-enlargement" and "participation" have been used in the literature, as examples of mechanisms for increasing the possibilities of overlap between individual and organizational interests.

3. THE HYPOTHESES

3. THE HYPOTHESES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this chapter is to present the set of hypotheses formulated as avenues of exploration of this study.

According to Kelly (1955) individuals differ from each other in their construction of events, and their behaviour is largely determined by the way they construe these events. In general, Kelly theorizes that individuals from the same cultural background are likely to have some common sets of perceptions, though they differ from each other in their construction of events.

In our attempt to compare individual and organizational perceptions of integration mechanisms, considering that the parties come from different cultural backgrounds, based on the theoretical model discussed in section 1.3, and according to the conceptual categories distinguished in the review of the literature, we hypothesized that there would be differences of perceptions between the individuals and the organizations, in relation to the application of

the integration mechanisms and the degree of goal integration achieved in the organizations. Because the concepts we were dealing with were new, the hypotheses tended to be of an exploratory nature. Thus, eight alternative hypotheses were formulated primarily in an attempt to replicate, to some extent, Barret's (1977) research findings, and secondly, to explore new relationships among the major variables. The first four hypotheses were designed to explore new relationships among the variables under investigation, while the remaining four hypotheses were essentially extensions of Barret's previously verified propositions applied to new data.

3.2 THE STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

The first two hypotheses largely arose from an attempt to identify, from both the individual (Hypothesis No. 1) and the organizational (Hypothesis No. 2) perspective, the extent of perceived deprivation, associated with the use of each goal integration model. It was hoped that the results from testing these hypotheses would indicate whether there was any deficiency between the actual and desired use of mechanisms associated with the classical (Exchange Mechanisms) and human relations schools of thought

(socialization and accommodation mechanisms). The hypotheses were:

HYPOTHESIS NO. 1

There are significant differences between present and ideal perceptions of goal integration mechanisms associated with the exchange, socialization and accommodation models. The individuals' ideal measures will be higher than present measures in all three models.

HYPOTHESIS NO. 2

These are significant differences between present and ideal perceptions of goal integration mechanisms associated with the exchange, socialization and accommodation models. The organization's ideal measures will be higher than present measures in all three models.

Hypothesis No. 1 and 2 dealt with the individual and organizational perceptions of the actual and ideal use of goal integration strategies separately. The hypotheses which follow attempted to

compare both the individual and organizational perceptions of the use of the three integration strategies employed by the organization. These hypotheses considered the possibility of a difference between the individual and organizational views of the use of the three models. Hypothesis No. 3 was concerned with the actual use of the models, while hypothesis No. 4 compared their perceptions in relation to the extent of deprivation associated with each model. The hypotheses were:

HYPOTHESIS NO. 3

There are significant differences between the individual and organizational perceptions of the mechanisms associated with the exchange, socialization and accommodation models.

HYPOTHESIS NO. 4

There are significant differences between the individual and organizational measures of the extent of perceived deprivation associated with the exchange, socialization and

accommodation models.

Hypotheses No. 5 and 6 were formulated to explore how the exchange, socialization and accommodation models would relate to each other. It was hypothesized that, although conceptually incompatible, the goal integration strategy associated with the classical school of organization (Exchange model) would be positively related to those connected with the human relations school. (Socialization and accommodation models). Hypothesis No. 5 was concerned with the individual perspective while hypothesis No. 6 was designed to test the variables from the organizational point of view. The hypotheses were:

HYPOTHESIS NO. 5

Measures of the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, as perceived by the individuals, will show positive relationships to each other.

HYPOTHESIS NO. 6

Measures of the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, as perceived by the organizations, will show

positive relationships to each other.

Hypotheses 7 and 8 summarize, from the individual (Hypothesis No. 7) and the organizational perspective (Hypothesis No. 8), the relationship which Barret theorized to exist between the three goal integration strategies and the perceived degree of goal integration achieved in the organization. Specifically, he hypothesized and found that, exchange mechanisms, associated with classical organizational theories, tend to be less effective in generating higher levels of goal integration, than socialization or accommodation mechanisms. The latter were considered to show the highest positive relationship to goal integration of all, suggesting that democratic and participative approaches, associated with the human relations school, are generally more effective in promoting the overlapping between individual and organizational interests. The hypotheses were:

HYPOTHESIS NO. 7

There are significant relationships between measures of the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, and the degree of goal integration achieved in the organization, as perceived by the

individuals. Accommodation mechanisms will show a higher positive relationship to goal integration than socialization mechanisms which, in turn, will show a higher positive relationship than exchange mechanisms.

HYPOTHESIS NO. 8

There are significant relationships between measures of the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, and the degree of goal integration achieved, as perceived by the organization. Accommodation mechanisms will show a higher positive relationship to goal integration than socialization mechanisms which, in turn, will show a higher positive relationship than exchange mechanisms.

In the next chapter, the research design and the methodology utilized in this study will be discussed.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research design and the methodology utilized for this study will be presented. Section 4.2 concerns the samples selected for the research, section 4.3 deals with the instruments designed to collect qualitative and quantitative information, section 4.4 describes the data collection procedures, section 4.5 defines the major variables of the study, section 4.6 presents the qualitative items of the questionnaires.

As described in chapter 1, one of the major objectives of this research was to compare individual and organizational perceptions of goal integration mechanisms. Therefore, in order to provide data for analysis from these two perspectives, this research required the collection of information at the individual and the organizational levels. At the individual level data were collected from employees of the organizations selected for this study. At the organizational level, information was gathered from chief executive officers, representing the organization's perceived view on the matters under

investigation.

4.2 THE BANK AND ORGANIZATION SAMPLES

On the basis of access to the organizations and the participation of volunteer subjects, ten branches and subsidiaries of Brazilian organizations operating in London were selected for this study. These organizations consisted of all Brazilian banks with the "branch" status of representation by the Bank of England, two governmental institutions, two mixed-capital organizations and two private enterprises.

In the design of this study, considering the importance of a representative sample in proportion to its numbers in the population, and the research limitations imposed by time, availability of resources and access to the organizations, it was attempted a realistic compromise between the thinly-dispersed random sample and the saturation sample, or what Coleman (1958) termed the "dense sampling". Perhaps, by sampling approximately one third of the total population of employees of Brazilian organizations operating in London, the potential biasing effects of having drawn on samples of volunteer subjects (Rosenthal, 1965) may be diminished, and the

representativeness of the sample increased.

In view of the two levels of analysis outlined in section 4.1, and in order to permit comparability of the results, and presumably greater reliability, two samples, with two subgroups each, were drawn for this study.

The first sample consisted of 39 employees and chief executive officers of Brazilian banks, representing approximately one third the total population of Brazilian Bank employees in London. The second sample consisted of 56 employees and chief executive officers of the six Brazilian organizations, also representing approximately one third of the total population, from which it was drawn.

According to the two levels of analysis intended for this study, the samples had the following subgroup structure:

SAMPLE 1. BANKS

1.1 Bank Employees

1.2 Bank Chief Executive Officers

SAMPLE 2. OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

2.1 Organization Employees

2.2 Organization Chief Executive Officers

Throughout this study, bank and other organizations' employees will be referred to as

"Individuals", while chief executive officer respondents from banks and other organizations will be denominated simply as "Banks" and "Organizations", respectively.

4.3 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Appendices No 1 and 2 present the instruments designed to collect data from the individuals, (questionnaire set No. 1) banks and organizations (questionnaire set No. 2).

In designing these questionnaires, it was attempted a balance between gathering quantitative data for the empirical testing of the hypotheses and collecting qualitative information, for further elucidation of the questions. Despite the difficulties of interpretation of qualitative information and the problems of quantification of "free-answers", (Cartwright, 1953; Oppenheim, 1966) the expected insights and presumable enrichment in understanding seemed to outweigh the obstacles, and justify the inclusion of qualitative material.

A preliminary test of the questionnaires was conducted in a bank and two organizations. Nine employees and two chief executive officers participated in this experiment. At the individual level, due to

lack of clarity in the presentation of some questions, results suggested that some items needed more instructions. At the organizational level, a general bank manager and a superintendent of an organization showed signs of unwillingness to furnish information on the current financial position of the enterprises which was intended to cover some aspects of the organization's characteristics for descriptive purposes. These items concerned with the financial position of the organizations were eliminated from the final version of questionnaire set No. 2 for the above reasons.

All questionnaire items, except those referring to individual characteristics and the qualitative material, were designed on a five-point Likert type scale, as follows:

- 1 - To a very little extent
- 2 - To a little extent
- 3 - To some extent
- 4 - To a great extent
- 5 - To a very great extent

4.4 DATA COLLECTION

At the individual level, subjects were administered the questionnaires in small groups ranging

from 2 to 9 at a time. In some organizations individuals were invited by management to attend an interview session in a specified common room, where they were informed about the experiment and asked to participate. In other organizations, a sector or department was requested by management to stop their normal activities for a few minutes, presented with the objectives of the research and invited to participate in the experiment in their own work environment. The subjects' participation rates at these less formal meetings were higher than those at pre-arranged interviews. Generally, after asking the co-operation of the employees, and assuring complete anonymity, managers would leave the room, so that subjects could decide whether or not to participate in the experiment, without the manager being present. In both types of session, the mean time for completing the questionnaires was approximately 25 minutes. In some cases however, respondents asked and were permitted to complete the questionnaire at home and return it by mail. Since some questionnaire items were designed to evaluate the individuals' perceptions of actual and desired states of the integration mechanisms between them and the organization, this appeared to suggest that subjects perceived that their ratings needed extra guarantees of anonymity.

At the organizational level, chief executive subjects were interviewed in their normal work environments, through pre-agreed appointments. The duration of these interviews ranged between forty five minutes and two hours approximately. In some cases the interviews were divided into two sessions for further exploration of ideas. The executives were assured that all information would be treated as confidential and that statistical analysis of the variables selected for this study would be done on an aggregate basis, so that no specific organization would be analyzed separately.

4.5 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

In this section, the variables included at the individual and organizational levels of analysis will be defined, and their method of measurement explained. The procedure for generating new variables, summary measures and indices will also be discussed.

4.5.1 MEASURES OF GROUP 1 - INDIVIDUALS

4.5.1.1 INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

SEX

The sex of the subjects was determined by the response of the individuals to item 1 of questionnaire 1, which simply offered two alternatives, (1) Male and (2) Female.

AGE

The age of the individuals was measured by five categories, representing the following age groups:

- 1 - 20 years or under
- 2 - 21 - 30 years
- 3 - 31 - 40 years

4 - 41 - 50 years

5 - 51 years or more

MARITAL STATUS

This variable was measured from responses to these five categories:

1 - Never married

2 - Married

3 - Widowed

4 - Divorced

5 - Other

NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS

This variable refers to the number of persons economically dependent on the respondents. The individuals were instructed to include in the number of dependents not only their sons and daughters but any relatives or other persons presently living on their salaries. Spouses or husbands were included only when they did not have employment of their own. The five categories included for the responses were:

1 - No Dependent

2 - 1 Dependent

3 - 2 Dependents

4 - 3 Dependents

5 - 4 Dependents or more

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

The individuals' level of education was assessed by responses to the following five alternatives:

1 - Primary school level

2 - 'O' Level or Equivalent

3 - 'A' Level or Equivalent

4 - University Level

5 - Post Graduate Level

Brazilian subjects were instructed that 'O' and 'A' levels would be equivalent to the first and second grades of the Brazilian Educational System, respectively.

NATIONALITY

This variable refers to the individuals' present nationality. For the purposes of this study the subjects' nationalities were later coded into 3 categories.

1 - Brazilian

2 - British

3 - Other Nationality

LEVEL IN THE ORGANIZATION

It referred to the individuals' current position in the organization. In the questionnaire, individuals were asked to indicate their present occupation in the organization. The aim of this item was to later classify individuals into three hierarchical levels in the organization according to the following typology of organizational levels:

1 - Operational Level

2 - Middle Level

3 - Higher Level

Individuals with clerical functions such as typists, secretaries, cashiers, telex operators, were considered on the operational level. On the middle level were included professionals and other employees holding occupations as accountants, economists, lawyers, and semi-managerial functions. Bank managers, Department heads, superintendents and other top level positions were classified as higher level.

LENGTH OF SERVICE AT THE ORGANIZATION (TENURE)

This variable refers to the individuals' years of service as organization employees. The alternative responses were:

- 1 - Less than 1 year
- 2 - 1 up to 3 years
- 3 - 3 up to 6 years
- 4 - 6 up to 9 years
- 5 - 9 or more years.

PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCE

This item was included to determine whether the individuals had any job experience before joining the bank or organization. It was measured from responses to this question:

Have you worked for any other firm before?

A dichotomous alternative was provided for the respondents, 1 being coded for 'yes' and 2 for 'No'.

ANNUAL INCOME LEVEL

This variable refers to the subjects' current annual gross salary. Individuals were asked to indicate one of the following salary categories:

- 1 - 5,000 pounds or less
- 2 - 5,001 - 10,000
- 3 - 10,001 - 15,000
- 4 - 15,001 - 20,000
- 5 - 20,001 or more.

4.5.1.2 GOAL INTEGRATION

This variable refers to the perceived degree of goal integration in the organizations. It was taken from Barret's study of Individual Goals and Organizational objectives. (Barret, 1977). It was derived from scores on the following items:

- 1. To what extent is the organization effective in getting you to meet its needs and contribute to its effectiveness?
- 2. To what extent does the organization do a good job of meeting your needs and goals as an individual?
- 3. If you devoted all your effort on the job to activities which directly satisfy your own needs and interests, to what extent would you be doing things which also help the organization be successful?

4. If you devoted all your effort on the job to activities which directly help the organization be successful, to what extent would you be doing things which also satisfy your own personal needs and interests?

A summary measure of goal integration was created from the mean scores of two different indices constructed from these four questionnaire items. Barret provides an explanation of how the items relate to the goal integration concept and a detailed description of the first index construction procedure:

"The first item above measures the individual's contribution to meeting the organization's objectives. The second item measures the organization's contribution to meeting the goals of the individual. Neither directly measures the concept of goal integration, so a special indexing procedure was used to combine scores on these two items. The formula for combining these scores can be stated in words as follows: first, take the lower of the scores on these two items and divide it by the higher of the two scores; then multiply this quotient by the mean of the two scores. The first

operation provides a measure of how closely the two scores match, i.e., it indicates whether the individual's and the organization's needs are being met equally well, or whether one set of needs is being met more adequately than the other. The second operation introduces a measure of the average level of fulfillment of these two sets of needs. Reflected in the index score, then, are both the general level of fulfillment and the degree of congruence in fulfilling the organization's objectives and the individual's goals. When each set of needs is maximally fulfilled, the index score has its highest value (i.e., $(5/5)5 = 5.00$). When one set of needs is maximally fulfilled and the other minimally fulfilled, the index score has its lowest value (i.e., $(1/5)3 = 0.60$). When both sets of needs are fulfilled equally, but at a low level, the index score remains near the low end of the scale (i.e., $(1/1)1 = 1.00$). Combining scores in this way makes the index a measure of goal integration, rather than merely an average of individual satisfaction from and contribution to the organization."

The second index consisted of the mean score of items 3 and 4, which presented two hypothetical questions to the individuals and asked them to evaluate the degree of goal integration that would exist under each situation.

Summarizing, the individuals' perceived degree of goal integration, was calculated simply by the mean score of the first and second goal integration indices described above.

4.5.1.3 EXCHANGE, SOCIALIZATION AND ACCOMMODATION MECHANISMS

The actual and ideal uses of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, as perceived by the individuals, were measured by three different questionnaires, containing ten questions for each model of integration mechanism.

Questionnaire numbers 03, 04 and 05 pertained to the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, respectively. Appendix 1 presents the instruments utilized to gather data from the individuals. In order to suit the requirements of this study, some items included in these questionnaires were taken from Barret's study, some adapted from the organizational behaviour literature and others designed in an attempt to measure the concepts being investigated.

Each of the ten items on the scale attempted to measure not only the existing perceptions of ten dimensions of integration mechanisms, but also the discrepancy between "present" and "ideal" perceptions. For each questionnaire item, individual subjects were, therefore, asked to give two ratings: The first for referring how things were at that present time and the second for indicating how they would like those to be,

ideally. Thus, data derived from each integration mechanism questionnaire item generated the following sets of variables:

a - "Present" measures of the extent of the use of dimensions of the mechanisms. In the list of variables the present measures will be referred to as "P".

b - Measures of the "ideal" extent of those mechanisms. These will be referred to as "I".

c - Measures of extent of perceived deprivation in relation to the integration mechanisms, to be referred to as 'D'.

The extent of perceived deprivation measures ("D") were created by subtracting the "ideal" from the "present" scores, considering that ideal scores were always higher than or equal to the present ones.

Summary measures of "P" and "I", were additionally created by taking the mean score of the ten items involved in each integration model separately. These summary measures were used for statistical analyses which required continuous variables as indicators of the mechanisms in their present, ideal or deficiency dimensions. For instance, the following

variables were generated for analyzing the difference between present and ideal perceptions of each integration model:

'MEP' and 'MEI' For indicating the summary indices of the present and ideal dimensions of the exchange model.

'MSP' and 'MSI' For referring to the summary indices of the present and ideal dimensions of socialization model.

'MAP' and 'MAI' For determining the summary indices of the present and ideal dimensions of the accommodation model.

EXCHANGE MECHANISMS (QUESTIONNAIRE 03)

As measures of exchange mechanisms, most of the items focussed on examining to what extent salary, job security, benefits, financial incentives, working conditions and social relationships with supervisors and other employees acted in exchange for the employees' work activities. Measures of exchange mechanisms were assessed through the following variables:

V15 AMOUNT OF SALARY-P

V16 AMOUNT OF SALARY-I

1. To what extent does the amount of salary you receive stimulate your best efforts in the job?

V17 CONSIDERATE TREATMENT AND RECOGNITION-P

V18 CONSIDERATE TREATMENT AND RECOGNITION-I

2. To what extent does the organization offer you considerate treatment and recognition?

V19 AVAILABLE RESOURCES-P

V20 AVAILABLE RESOURCES-I

3. To what extent do your superiors facilitate goal achievement by providing whatever means and resources are necessary?

V21 FEELING OF JOB SECURITY-P

V22 FEELING OF JOB SECURITY-I

4. To what extent does the organization provide you with a feeling of job security?

V23 BENEFITS AND FINANCIAL INCENTIVES-P

V24 BENEFITS AND FINANCIAL INCENTIVES-I

5. To what extent does the amount of benefits and financial incentives you receive stimulate your best efforts?

V25 RELATIONSHIP WITH COLLEAGUES-P

V26 RELATIONSHIP WITH COLLEAGUES-I

6. To what extent do you have chances for developing informal relationships with your colleagues at work?

V27 EMPLOYEES' RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERIOR-P

V28 EMPLOYEES' RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERIOR-I

7. To what extent is there a good relationship between you and your immediate superior?

V29 WORKING CONDITIONS AND EQUIPMENT-P

V30 WORKING CONDITIONS AND EQUIPMENT-I

8. To what extent does the quality of working conditions and equipment at your disposal stimulate your efforts?

V31 FINANCIAL REWARD STRUCTURE-P

V32 FINANCIAL REWARD STRUCTURE-I

9. To what extent is your individual performance stimulated by financial benefits and incentives?

V33 PROMOTIONS AND SALARY INCREASES-P

V34 PROMOTIONS AND SALARY INCREASES-I

10. To what extent is there a consistent application of personnel policies in

determining promotions and salary increases?

SOCIALIZATION MECHANISMS (QUESTIONNAIRE 04)

The items that provided measures of the use of socialization mechanisms concentrated on certain dimensions of the socialization process of individuals in organizations. They included aspects of socialization through induction programmes, leader and peer modelling behaviour, employees' internalization of the organization's objectives, and other processes which presumably would make the individuals adopt some of the organizational objectives as personal goals. The following items were included for deriving measures of socialization mechanisms:

V35 INDUCTION PROGRAMMES-P

V36 INDUCTION PROGRAMMES-I

1. To what extent are the induction programmes for new employees clear about the values, goals, policies, and norms of the organization.

V37 INFORMATION ON CURRENT ISSUES-P

V38 INFORMATION ON CURRENT ISSUES-I

2. To what extent does the organization inform you about its problems, successes,

current policies and financial goals?

V39 SUPERIORS' STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE-P

V40 SUPERIORS' STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE-I

3. To what extent do your superiors set examples by achieving high standards of performance themselves?

V41 WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE-P

V42 WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE-I

4. To what extent are you willing to change or give up practices or interests which go against the interests of the organization?

V43 RESPONSIBILITY FOR ECONOMIC MATTERS-P

V44 RESPONSIBILITY FOR ECONOMIC MATTERS-I

5. To what extent do you feel responsible for helping the organization to keep costs down and performance high?

V45 WILLINGNESS TO ACQUIRE NEW SKILLS-P

V46 WILLINGNESS TO ACQUIRE NEW SKILLS-I

6. To what extent are you willing to change your routine in order to acquire new skills and abilities for organization careers?

V47 ENCOURAGEMENT-P

V48 ENCOURAGEMENT-I

7. To what extent do you receive friendly encouragement from your superiors in order to give your best efforts in the job?

V49 CO-OPERATION-P

V50 CO-OPERATION-I

8. To what extent do your colleagues in different positions help each other to carry out difficult or urgent tasks?

V51 COLLEAGUES' STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE-P

V52 COLLEAGUES' STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE-I

9. To what extent do your colleagues maintain high standards of performance in their tasks?

V53 RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE ORGANIZATION'S REPUTATION-P

V54 RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE ORGANIZATION'S REPUTATION-I

10. To what extent do you feel personally responsible for the organization's reputation with clients and friends?

ACCOMMODATION MECHANISMS (QUESTIONNAIRE 05)

The items intended to be measures of the accommodation mechanisms included aspects of individual participation in decision making, opportunities for self development, the consideration of employees'

interests in role design and work assignment, the adaptation of organizational policies to meet individual needs, goals and aspirations, etc. In general they attempted to measure the extent to which the organization was commital to the interests, involvement and participation of the individuals in the organization. The following items provided measures of present and ideal perceptions of socialization mechanisms:

V55 ROLE DESIGN-P

V56 ROLE DESIGN-I

1. To what extent are your needs and interests taken into account when roles are designed or work assigned?

V57 INVOLVEMENT IN MAKING DECISIONS-P

V58 INVOLVEMENT IN MAKING DECISIONS-I

2. To what extent are you given opportunities to participate in making decisions related to work problems and procedures?

V59 INCENTIVES FOR SELF DEVELOPMENT-P

V60 INCENTIVES FOR SELF DEVELOPMENT-I

3. To what extent is the organization willing to provide you the means and incentives for self development and educational upgrading?

V61 EMPLOYEES' SUGGESTIONS-P

V62 EMPLOYEES' SUGGESTIONS-I

4. To what extent does the organization take into consideration the expression of your opinion, ideas and suggestions related to your work activities?

V63 CHANCES FOR GROWTH AND ADVANCEMENT-P

V64 CHANCES FOR GROWTH AND ADVANCEMENT-I

5. To what extent are you given chances for growth and advancement in your career?

V65 CHANGING PERSONNEL POLICIES-P

V66 CHANGING PERSONNEL POLICIES-I

6. To what extent do you feel the organization's personnel policies are being changed to meet your needs, interests, goals and aspirations?

V67 PARTICIPATION IN OBJECTIVES-P

V68 PARTICIPATION IN OBJECTIVES-I

7. To what extent does the organization provide you opportunities for discussion and participation in the setting of priorities and objectives for your department?

V69 CHANGING WORK METHODS AND OBJECTIVES-P

V70 CHANGING WORK METHODS AND OBJECTIVES-I

8. To what extent is the organization willing to change or give up work methods and objectives which are not satisfactory to your interests?

V71 PARTICIPATION IN SALARY POLICIES-P

V72 PARTICIPATION IN SALARY POLICIES-I

9. To what extent do you have chances to participate in the review of salaries and promotion policies?

V73 INVOLVEMENT WITH EMPLOYEES' PROBLEMS-P

V74 INVOLVEMENT WITH EMPLOYEES' PROBLEMS-I

10. To what extent does the organization assess and respond to your personal problems, interests and aspirations related to your career?

4.5.2 MEASURES OF GROUP 2 - ORGANIZATIONS

4.5.2.1 GOAL INTEGRATION (QUESTIONNAIRE 11)

Goal integration is a measure of the perceived degree of goal integration from the organizational standpoint. It was measured by an adaptation of the Barret (1977) instrument, with the necessary changes in wording to adjust the questions for an organizational perspective (Appendix 2). It was derived from scores on the following items:

1. To what extent is the organization effective in getting its employees to meet its needs and contribute to its effectiveness?
2. To what extent does the organization do a good job of meeting employees needs and goals as individuals?
3. If your employees devoted all effort on the job to activities which directly satisfy their own needs and interests, to what extent would they be doing things which also help the organization be successful?
4. If your employees devoted all their

effort on the job to activities which directly help the organization be successful, to what extent would they be doing things which also satisfy their own personal needs and interests?

The organization's summary measure of goal integration was calculated by the mean score of two separate indices constructed from the four questionnaire items above. The first index was constructed from items 1 and 2, as described in section 4.5.1.2, for the individuals' first index of goal integration. The second index consisted of the mean score of items 3 and 4, indicating the organization's ratings of the presumable degree of goal integration which would be achieved under two different situations.

4.5.2.2 EXCHANGE, SOCIALIZATION AND ACCOMMODATION MECHANISMS

Refer to the present and ideal use of the exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, as perceived by the organizations. The dimensions selected to measure the three goal integration models were the same as those included in the individuals' questionnaire. They were intended to be measures of

the same constructs from a different perspective. Only slight changes in wording were necessary to put the questions in an organizational perspective. An example of a question transformed for an organizational perspective:

Individual Perspective:

To what extent does the amount of salary you receive stimulate your best efforts in the job?

Organizational Perspective:

The extent to which the amount of salary your employees receive stimulate their best efforts in the job?

Appendix 2 presents questionnaires numbers 13, 14 and 15 which were used to collect data concerning the exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms from an organizational perspective.

Similarly to the individuals' measures, the following set of variables were generated from the organizations' ratings of the three mechanisms:

a - "Present" measures of the extent of the use of dimensions of the mechanisms. (P)

b - Measures of the ideal extent of the use of that mechanism (I)

c - Measures of the extent of perceived deprivation in the use of the mechanism (D)

Summary measures of "P" and "I" were also generated by taking the mean score of the items involved in each mechanism separately. The following variables were created for analyzing the magnitude of the difference between present and ideal ratings of each goal integration model:

"MEP" and "MEI" - As summary indicators of the present and ideal dimensions of the exchange model.

"MSP" and "MSI" - Summary indices of the present and ideal dimensions of the socialization model.

"MAP" and "MAI" - Summary indices of the present and ideal dimensions of the accommodation model.

Organizational measures of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms refer to the same constructs described in the individuals' measures of integration mechanisms. (4.5.1.3) They were derived

from scores of the following questionnaire items:

EXCHANGE MECHANISMS (QUESTIONNAIRE 13)

V15 AMOUNT OF SALARY-P

V16 AMOUNT OF SALARY-I

1. The extent to which the amount of salary your employees receive stimulate their efforts in the job.

V17 CONSIDERATE TREATMENT AND RECOGNITION-P

V18 CONSIDERATE TREATMENT AND RECOGNITION-I

2. The extent to which the organization offers its employees considerate treatment and recognition.

V19 AVAILABLE RESOURCES-P

V20 AVAILABLE RESOURCES-I

3. The extent to which the organization facilitates goal achievement by providing whatever means and resources are necessary.

V21 FEELING OF JOB SECURITY-P

V22 FEELING OF JOB SECURITY-I

4. The extent to which the organization provides the employees a feeling of job security.

V23 BENEFITS AND FINANCIAL INCENTIVES-P

V24 BENEFITS AND FINANCIAL INCENTIVES-I

5. The extent to which the amount of benefits and financial incentives your employees receive stimulate their best efforts.

V25 RELATIONSHIP WITH COLLEAGUES-P

V26 RELATIONSHIP WITH COLLEAGUES-I

6. The extent to which the organization facilitates the development of informal relationships among employees at the same level.

V27 EMPLOYEES' RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERIOR-P

V28 EMPLOYEES' RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERIOR-I

7. The extent to which there is a good relationship between superiors and subordinates.

V29 WORKING CONDITIONS AND EQUIPMENT-P

V30 WORKING CONDITIONS AND EQUIPMENT-I

8. The extent to which the quality of working conditions and equipment at your employees' disposal stimulate their efforts.

V31 FINANCIAL REWARD STRUCTURE-P

V32 FINANCIAL REWARD STRUCTURE-I

9. The extent to which the organization

offers a link between individual performance and the financial reward structure.

V33 PROMOTIONS AND SALARY INCREASES-P

V34 PROMOTIONS AND SALARY INCREASES-I

10. The extent to which the organization applies consistent personnel policies in determining promotions and salary increases.

SOCIALIZATION MECHANISMS (QUESTIONNAIRE 14)

V35 INDUCTION PROGRAMMES-P

V36 INDUCTION PROGRAMMES-I

1. The extent to which the induction programmes for new employees are clear about the values, goals, policies and norms of the organization.

V37 INFORMATION ON CURRENT ISSUES-P

V38 INFORMATION ON CURRENT ISSUES-I

2. The extent to which the organization informs its employees about its failures, successes, current policies, and financial goals.

V39 SUPERIORS' STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE-P

V40 SUPERIORS' STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE-I

3. The extent to which superiors set examples by achieving high standards of performance themselves.

V41 WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE-P

V42 WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE-I

4. The extent to which the employees are willing to change or give up practices which go against the interests of the organization.

V43 RESPONSIBILITY FOR ECONOMIC MATTERS-P

V44 RESPONSIBILITY FOR ECONOMIC MATTERS-I

5. The extent to which individual employees feel a sense of responsibility for helping the organization to keep costs down and performance high.

V45 WILLINGNESS TO ACQUIRE NEW SKILLS-P

V46 WILLINGNESS TO ACQUIRE NEW SKILLS-I

6. The extent to which the employees are willing to change their routine in order to acquire new skills and abilities required for organizational careers.

V47 ENCOURAGEMENT-P

V48 ENCOURAGEMENT-I

7. The extent to which superiors give their subordinates friendly encouragement in order

to get their best efforts in the job.

V49 CO-OPERATION-P

V50 CO-OPERATION-P

8. The extent to which there is co-operation by employees of different positions to carry out difficult or urgent tasks.

V51 COLLEAGUES' STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE-P

V52 COLLEAGUES' STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE-I

9. The extent to which employees maintain high standards of performance in their tasks.

V53 RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE ORGANIZATION'S REPUTATION-P

V54 RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE ORGANIZATION'S REPUTATION-I

10. The extent to which the employees feel personally responsible for the organization's reputation with clients and friends.

ACCOMMODATION MECHANISMS (QUESTIONNAIRE 15)

V55 ROLE DESIGN-P

V56 ROLE DESIGN-I

1. The extent to which the employees' needs and interests are taken into consideration when roles are designed or work assigned.

V57 INVOLVEMENT IN MAKING DECISIONS-P

V58 INVOLVEMENT IN MAKING DECISIONS-I

2. The extent to which the organization stimulates employee involvement in making decisions related to work problems and procedures.

V59 INCENTIVES FOR SELF-DEVELOPMENT-P

V60 INCENTIVES FOR SELF-DEVELOPMENT-I

3. The extent to which the organization is willing to provide its employees means and incentives for self-development and educational upgrading.

V61 EMPLOYEES' SUGGESTIONS-P

V62 EMPLOYEES' SUGGESTIONS-I

4. The extent to which the organization takes into consideration the expression of employees' opinions, ideas and suggestions related to their work activities.

V63 CHANCES FOR GROWTH AND ADVANCEMENT-P

V64 CHANCES FOR GROWTH AND ADVANCEMENT-I

5. The extent to which the organization offers the employees a chance for growth and advancement in their careers.

V65 CHANGING PERSONNEL POLICIES-P

V66 CHANGING PERSONNEL POLICIES-I

6. The extent to which the organization's personnel policies are being changed to meet employees' interests, goals and aspirations.

V67 PARTICIPATION IN OBJECTIVES-P

V68 PARTICIPATION IN OBJECTIVES-I

7. The extent to which the organization stimulates employee discussion and participation in the establishment of priorities and objectives for their departments.

V69 CHANGING WORK METHODS AND OBJECTIVES-P

V70 CHANGING WORK METHODS AND OBJECTIVES-I

8. The extent to which the organization is willing to change or give up work methods and objectives which are not satisfactory to the interests of the employees.

V71 PARTICIPATION IN SALARY POLICIES-P

V72 PARTICIPATION IN SALARY POLICIES-I

9. The extent to which employees have a chance to participate in the review of salary and promotion policies.

V73 INVOLVEMENT WITH EMPLOYEES' PROBLEMS-P

V74 INVOLVEMENT WITH EMPLOYEES' PROBLEMS-I

10. The extent to which the organization assesses and responds to employees' personal problems, interests and aspirations related to their careers.

4.6 QUALITATIVE MATERIAL

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

So far, questionnaire items related to the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation models referred to goal integration mechanisms designed by the organization for increasing the overlap between individual and organizational interests. However, assuming that individuals are not passive elements in the organization and that some of them may employ a variety of their own processes, strategies and mechanisms for increasing, maintaining or decreasing the overlap between individual and organizational interests, six open-ended questions were included in an attempt to examine these matters. (Questionnaire 06). Specifically, these items were concerned in identifying:

a) Influence processes utilized by individuals which might lead in getting the organization to meeting some of their interests.

b) Individual or organizational factors which might prevent the utilization of influence processes by the individuals.

The format of the question was the following:

Assuming that, to some extent the individual may influence the organization to meet his personal interests and needs, please indicate for each item below:

- a. whether you feel you can exercise influence over the subject or not.
 - b. If YES, please state what means or processes you utilize to reach your objectives,
 - c. IF NOT, give reasons which prevent you influencing the organization.
1. On the amount of salary increases you receive.
 2. On the amount of job security you have.
 3. On an increased participation in problem-solving and decision-making.
 4. On the adjustment of organization policies which go against your interests.

5. On the increased utilization of your qualifications and potential by the organization.

6. On your chances to learn new technical or professional skills required for your job.

In addition, three open-ended items were part of questionnaire 07, under the title "General Issues". These were included in an attempt to discover related problems which were not covered by the previous questions. They were:

1. Considering your education, training and preparation do you feel your knowledge, skills and abilities are being utilized in your present position?

2. In general, which aspects of your job you tend to like best?

3. All together, which aspects of your job you tend to dislike?

ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL

At the organizational level, the semi-structured part of the interviews with chief executive officers focussed around the following questions (Questionnaire 12):

a. To what extent is the organization effective in getting its employees to meet its needs and contribute to its effectiveness?

b. Does the organization do a good job of meeting employees needs and goals as individuals?

c. What are the organization's policies in relation to the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms?

5. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of two parts. The first part, comprised of sections 5.2 to 5.9, presents the results obtained from testing the hypotheses formulated to analyze the individual and organizational perceptions of the use of the exchange, socialization and accommodation models and the degree of goal integration achieved. The second part, section 5.10, deals with the qualitative material designed to investigate the strategies employed by the individual employees in their attempts to influence the organization to meet their personal interests.

5.2 HYPOTHESIS No. 1

Hypothesis No. 1 was formulated to test whether there would be a difference between present and ideal perceptions of goal integration mechanisms as perceived by individuals. Restated in the usual notation the hypothesis was:

H1: There are significant differences between present and ideal perceptions of goal integration mechanisms associated with the exchange, socialization and accommodation models. The individuals' ideal measures will be higher than present measures in all three models.

In order to test the hypothesis a series of T-Tests was conducted on the two samples, to determine the existence of significant differences. The relevant statistics, the calculated "T" values and 1-tail probabilities are provided in tables 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3.

An analysis of the data in tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 indicates that the hypothesis was highly supported at significant levels for the Exchange, Socialization and Accommodation models, by both sample 1 (Bank), and sample 2 (Other Organizations). Ideal

SUBFILE BANI

T - T E S T						
VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	(DIFFERENCE) MEAN	T VALUE
MEI						
	35	3.9600	0.587	0.099	0.9171	7.77
						34
						0.000
MEP						
MSI						
	35	3.8400	0.613	0.104	1.0314	10.95
						34
						0.000
MSP						
MAI						
	35	3.7029	0.728	0.123	1.6229	11.47
						34
						0.000
MAP						

Table 5.1 T-test Statistics - Individuals' Present and
Ideal Perceptions of Integration Mechanisms - Bank Sample.

SUBFILE URG1

T - T E S T -									
VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	(DIFFERENCE) MEAN	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROR.	
MEI									
	49	4.0878	0.556	0.079	1.0918	9.92	48	0.000	
MEP									
		2.9959	0.645	0.092					
MSI									
	49	4.2571	0.513	0.073	1.3184	12.28	48	0.000	
MSP									
		2.9388	0.765	0.109					
MAI									
	49	5.9286	0.673	0.096	1.8735	13.30	48	0.000	
MAP									
		2.0551	0.776	0.111					

Table 5.2 T-test statistics - Individuals' Present and

Ideal Perceptions of Integration Mechanisms

- Organization Sample.

1-Tail

34 7.77				
d.f.= 34	t-val= 7.770	probabilities = 0.999999997573	0.000000002427	
34 10.95				
d.f.= 34	t-val= 10.950	probabilities = 0.999999999999	0.000000000001	
34 11.47				
d.f.= 34	t-val= 11.470	probabilities = 1.000000000000	0.000000000000	
48 9.92				
d.f.= 48	t-val= 9.920	probabilities = 1.000000000000	0.000000000000	
48 12.28				
d.f.= 48	t-val= 12.280	probabilities = 1.000000000000	0.000000000000	
48 13.30				
d.f.= 48	t-val= 13.300	probabilities = 1.000000000000	0.000000000000	
5 9.0				
d.f.= 5	t-val= 9.000	probabilities = 0.999858660013	0.000141339987	
5 22.70				
d.f.= 5	t-val= 22.700	probabilities = 0.999998457744	0.000001542256	
48 9.92				
d.f.= 48	t-val= 9.920	probabilities = 1.000000000000	0.000000000000	

Table 5.3 Calculated 1-Tail Probabilities
for T-values of tables 5.1 and 5.2.

measures were higher than present measures in all three models.

BANK RESPONDENTS

An examination of table 5.1 and figure 5.1 indicates that Bank employees perceived the greatest disparity in the use of accommodation mechanisms. A significant difference was found for this model ($t = 11.47$; d.f. = 34; $p < 0.001$). The present index (MAP) was 2.08, the ideal (MAI) 3.70 and the extent of perceived deprivation (MAI -MAP) was 1.62.

For the socialization model, the difference between present and ideal perceptions was 1.03. (MSI = 3.84; MSP = 2.80) The T-Test also indicated a significant difference for this model. ($t = 10.95$; d.f. = 34; $p < 0.001$).

The least significant difference among the three goal integration models was found in the Exchange model. ($t = 7.77$; d.f. = 34 $p < 0,001$). The mean scores for the present and ideal measures were 3.04 and 3.96 respectively, revealing a relatively small difference between them (0.91).

ORGANIZATION RESPONDENTS

In the organization sample, the difference

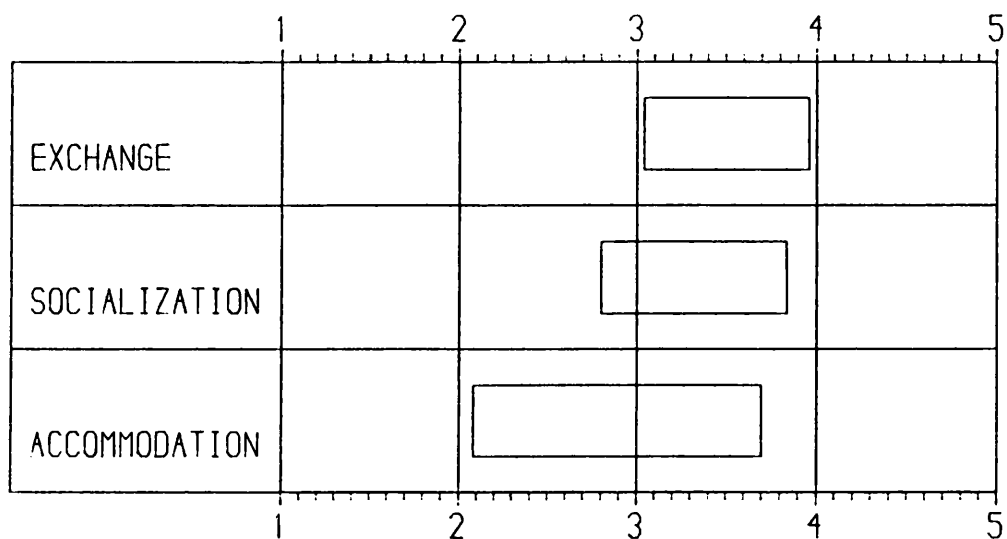


Figure 5.1 Individuals' extent of perceived deprivation in relation to the integration models - Bank Sample

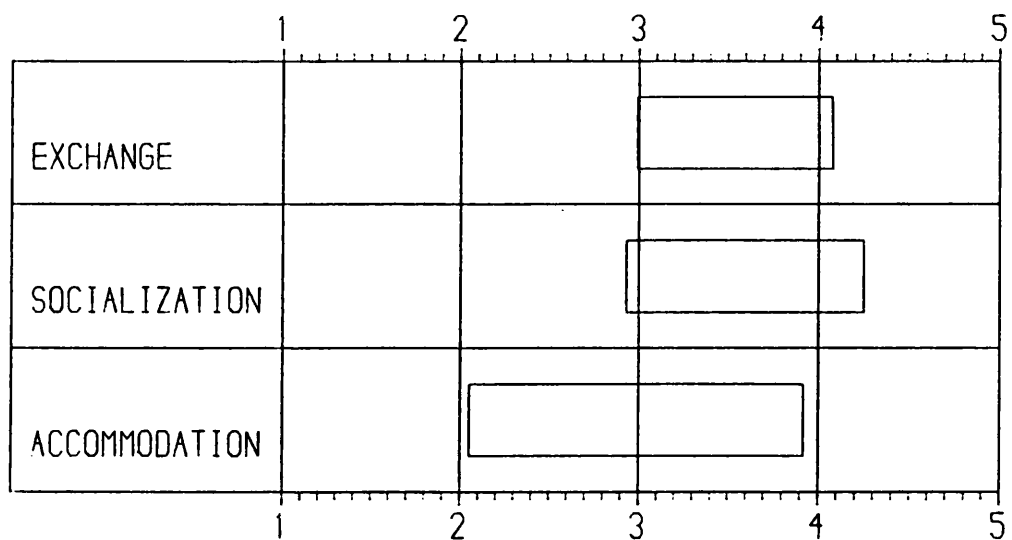


Figure 5.2 Individuals' extent of perceived deprivation in relation to the integration models - Org. Sample

between present and ideal perceptions of goal integration mechanisms associated with the accommodation model was the most significant among the three models, as indicated by the Student T-Test statistic ($t = 13.30$) in table 5.2. With 48 degrees of freedom, the probability of this value is less than 0.001. The mean score of the present summary measure of the accommodation model (MAP) was 2.05 while the ideal (MAI) was 3.92, showing a discrepancy of 1.87. (MAI - MAP). This difference seems to indicate the extent of perceived deprivation in the use of integration mechanisms associated with the accommodation model among organization respondents. (Figure 5.2)

Table 5.2 also shows that a significant difference was found in the perceptions of socialization mechanisms. ($t = 12.28$, d.f. = 48, $p < 0.001$). The discrepancy between present and ideal measures was 1.31. (MSI = 4.25; MSP = 2.93).

A smaller, but significant, difference between present and ideal perceptions, however, was found in the use of exchange mechanisms ($t = 9.92$, d.f. = 48, $p < 0.001$). The difference between means was 1.09. (MEI = 4.08; MEP = 2.99).

Figures 5.1 and 5.2 show, for both samples, the magnitude of the differences between present and

ideal scores of Bank and Organization respondents, for the exchange, socialization and accommodation models.

The analysis of the results outlined above seem to emphasize the following important points:

First, in both the bank and organization samples, the individuals suggested the existence of some "inequity between what is perceived to be and what is perceived should be" (Adams, 1965:272). According to Homans' (1961) theory of Distributive Justice", when individuals perceive a relative lack of proportionality between what they consider to be their investment (skill, education, effort, training, experience, age, sex, ethnic background, etc) and the rewards obtained from the organization, they will experience a feeling of injustice and deprivation. Reference to figures 5.1 and 5.2 reveals that the smallest extent of perceived deprivation was found in the use of exchange mechanisms by Bank respondents. This appears to suggest that Bank employees are those relatively more integrated with the use of exchange than socialization or accommodation mechanisms. One typical comment provided by a bank employee seems to emphasize the importance of exchange mechanisms in banks. He stated:

"I like solving problems, contacting the bank

clients personally and helping my colleagues... but I think that, what really matters is collecting my pay slip at the end of the month".

This seems to support the notion that money is a "sine qua non" reason for working. Money in itself, has no utility other than being used as an instrument for obtaining a wide variety of things and fulfilling personal needs. (Opsahl and Dunnette, 1966). This peculiarity of money and the importance attached to it by individuals in general, has led some organizational theorists to regard the role of money in an instrumental way. (Vroom, 1964; Goldthorpe, 1968; Gellerman, 1968; Rose, 1978)

Second, in both samples, the most significant differences were found in the accommodation mechanisms. It seems that, as compared to the other mechanisms, individuals perceived accommodation mechanisms as an area for potential changes between actual and desired states.

Perhaps, these results can be interpreted in terms of Sirota and Greenwood's (1971) view of the work goals of British employees. In a research conducted in 25 countries they attempted to identify the work goals of thousands of employees of a manufacturer of

electrical equipment. Although some differences in the goal hierarchies of the individuals were found, these were relatively small, which permitted them to conclude that there were considerable similarities in the work goals of the individuals around the world. Based on goal similarity patterns, they indicated that the Brazilian, German, Israeli, Japanese, Venezuelan and Swedish workers presented work goals which were not consistent with any other group of employees. Regarding the British employees, Sirota and Greenwood (1971:59) suggested that the group of anglo employees was higher than any other "on goals pertaining to individual achievement and low on the desire for security". In this study, a higher proportion of individuals were British (68.6% in banks and 69.4% in organizations). This might help to explain the reasons why, in both samples, individuals indicated that there seems to be considerable deprivation in the use of accommodation mechanisms.

Some comments provided by individuals in organizations illustrate the emphasis placed on accommodation mechanisms:

"I like doing things which show that, at the end of the day, you look as though you have accomplished something...".

"I enjoy most of the work here but, I regret the lack of full employment of my capabilities, and the lack of advancement opportunities".

Broadly speaking, these findings seem to indicate that, although both bank and organization employees appeared to be reasonably satisfied with the use of exchange mechanisms, they, at the same time, seemed to show a desire for an increased application of goal integration mechanisms associated with the accommodation model.

5.3 HYPOTHESIS No. 2

It was hypothesized that there would be significant differences between present and ideal measures of goal integration mechanisms, as perceived by the organization. Stated in a testable form the hypothesis was:

H1: There are significant differences between present and ideal perceptions of goal integration mechanisms associated with the exchange, socialization and accommodation models. The organization's ideal measures will be higher than present measures in all three models.

To test this hypothesis, a series of T-tests was performed on the weighted data of the bank and organization samples, to determine the existence of significant differences between present and ideal measures of the use of integration mechanisms. The results of these tests, the relevant statistics, T-values and associated probabilities are provided in tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6.

An examination of tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6

T - T E S T - - - - -									
VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	*(DIFFERENCE) * MEAN	* *	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROB.
MEI						*			
	35	4.3500	0.615	0.104		*			
					0.9750	*	6.94	34	0.000
MEP						*			
		3.3750	0.543	0.092		*			
MSI						*			
	35	4.6250	0.281	0.048		*			
					1.6250	*	15.04	34	0.000
MSP						*			
		3.0000	0.492	0.083		*			
MAI						*			
	35	4.0250	0.450	0.076		*			
					1.0750	*	9.83	34	0.000
MAP						*			
		2.9500	0.273	0.046		*			

Table 5.4 T-test Statistics - The Organization's

Present and Ideal Perceptions of Integration Mechanisms - Bank Sample

T - T E S T									
VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	*(DIFFERENCE)* * MEAN *	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROR.	
MEI					*				
	48	4.8500	0.296	0.042	*				
					*	0.9000	48	0.000	
MEP					*				
		3.9500	0.266	0.038	*				
MSI					*				
	48	4.7500	0.239	0.034	*				
					*	1.2667	48	0.000	
MSP					*				
		3.4833	0.643	0.092	*				
MAI					*				
	48	4.3833	0.567	0.081	*				
					*	1.0833	48	0.000	
MAP					*				
		3.3000	0.467	0.067	*				

Table 5.5 T-test Statistics - The Organization's

Present and Ideal Perceptions of Integration Mechanisms - Organization Sample.

1-tail

34 6.94
d.f.= 34 t-val= 6.940 probabilities = 0.999999973369 0.000000026631

34 15.04
d.f.= 34 t-val= 15.040 probabilities = 1.000000000000 0.000000000000

34 9.83
d.f.= 34 t-val= 9.830 probabilities = 0.999999999991 0.000000000009

48 27.87
d.f.= 48 t-val= 27.870 probabilities = 1.000000000000 0.000000000000

48 17.58
d.f.= 48 t-val= 17.580 probabilities = 1.000000000000 0.000000000000

48 70.30
d.f.= 48 t-val= 70.300 probabilities = 1.000000000000 0.000000000000

Table 5.6 Calculated 1-tail Probabilities
for t-values of Tables 5.4 and 5.5.

indicates that, using a 0.001 level of significance, there was no evidence to reject the alternative hypothesis for both samples. Thus, the hypothesis was highly supported by both the bank and organization samples, ideal measures being higher than present measures in the exchange, socialization and accommodation models.

BANKS

Table 5.4 and figure 5.3 present the bank's present and ideal perceptions of the use of the integration mechanisms. An examination of table 5.4 and figure 5.3 indicates that, in general, bank executives perceived some disparities in the use of the three integration models, as evidenced by the difference between present and ideal mean scores.

As shown in figure 5.3 the largest difference was found in the use of socialization mechanisms. ($MSI = 4.62$, $MSP = 3.00$). The extent of perceived deprivation ($MSI - MSP$) reached 1.62 and the T-test indicated a significant difference for this model ($t = 15.04$, $d.f. = 34$, $p < 0.001$).

The second largest extent of perceived deprivation (1.07) was found in the use of accommodation mechanisms. ($MAI = 4.02$, $MAP = 2.95$, $t = 9.83$, $d.f. = 34$, $p < 0.001$).

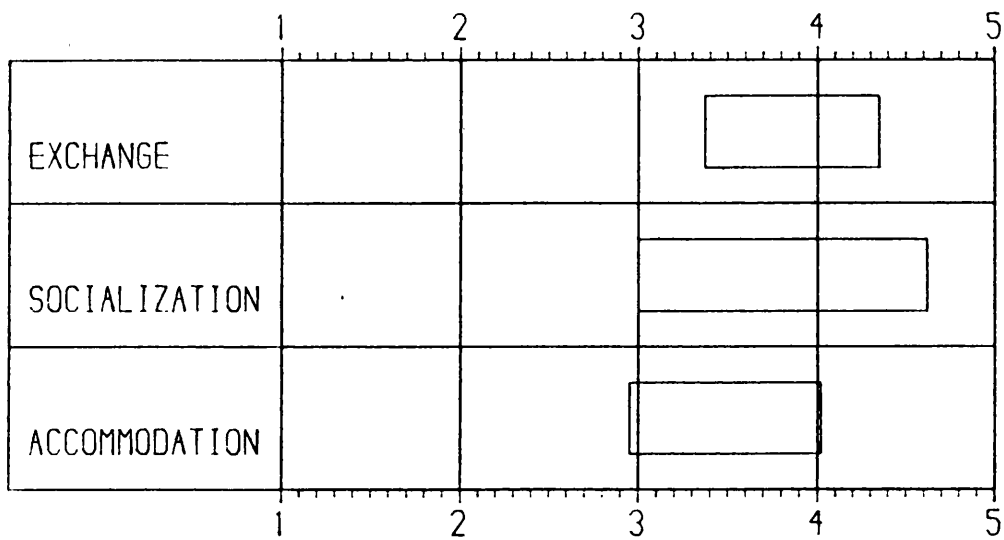


Figure 5.3 Organizations' extent of perceived deprivation in relation to the integration models - Bank Sample

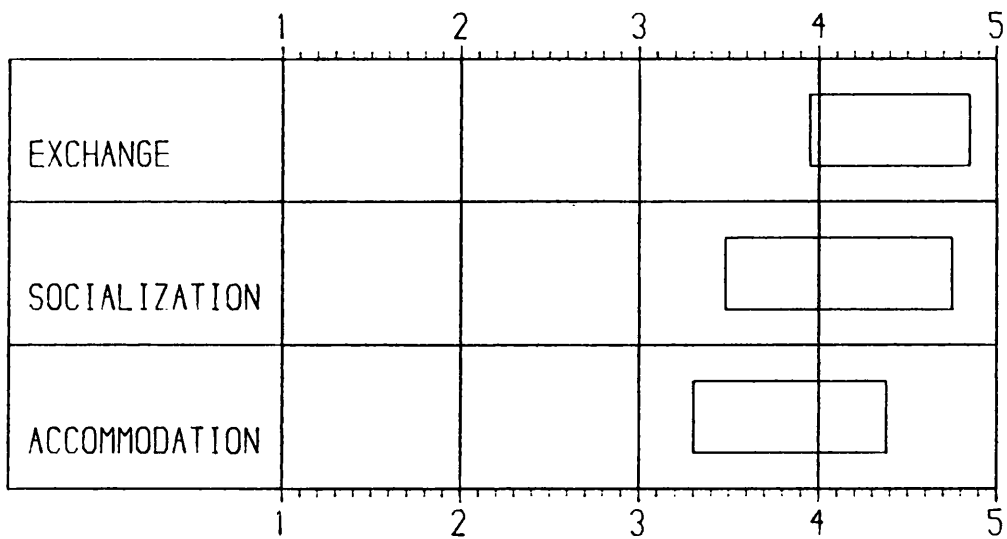


Figure 5.4 Organizations' extent of perceived deprivation in relation to the integration models - Org. Sample

As regards the exchange mechanisms, bank executives seemed to indicate that there existed a relatively small extent of deprivation (0.97) in relation to the use of exchange as an integration mechanism. (MEI = 4.35, MEP = 3.37, $t = 6.94$, d.f. = 34, $p < 0.001$).

OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

The results from the organization sample are presented in table 5.5 and figure 5.4.

An analysis of table 5.5 and figures 5.4 indicates that, in general, a pattern of response similar to that of Banks, was observed for the three models. In other words, the socialization model presented the largest extent of perceived deprivation (1.26), followed by the accommodation (1.08) and exchange models (0.90). All differences were found to be significant ($p < 0.001$).

Broadly speaking, these results appear to suggest that present and ideal perceptions of Bank and Other Organizations, regarding the use of integration mechanisms are relatively congruent. As can be seen in figure 5.4, from the point of view of the organization, both the bank and organization samples indicated that the greatest disparity appeared to be in the use of socialization, mechanisms, followed by accommodation,

and exchange mechanisms. Regarding the exchange model, it has been interesting to note that the results provided by this analysis of the organizational perspective are relatively similar to those of the individual perspective (Hypothesis 1). As shown in figures 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4, in both samples, the individuals and the organizations seemed to perceive the smallest discrepancy between present and ideal situations in the use of the exchange model. The largest discrepancy from the individual perspective was indicated in the use of accommodation mechanisms, while from the organizational standpoint socialization mechanisms were emphasized.

The interviews with executives from banks and other organizations provided some explanations for the greater reliance on exchange mechanisms as means of promoting the integration of individual and organizational interests. Some of the relevant comments by top executives were:

"This organization usually employs resident people for its junior staff and the prospects for them to reach higher posts is very limited. In order to balance such limitation, we pay them well over and above

the average salary prevailing on the local labour market".

"Being a small overseas branch of about 13 employees, our staff is generally well paid and work as a team without the conflicting interests which exist in a large indigenous bank or branch. Teamwork is more necessary and more apparent when the overseas branch is young and endeavouring to establish itself in the banking community, in this case, the city of London".

"As a Brazilian organization, Brazilian labour legislation is, as far as possible, applied to our employees, except for retirement benefits. Our employees receive a 13th annual salary and are entitled to 30 days holidays. The staff constitutes a close small family... Unfortunately, their prospects for the future cannot be entirely and satisfactorily fulfilled".

These remarks seem to highlight the predominance of exchange mechanisms, perhaps in detriment of the use of socialization and accommodation processes. Assuming that the organizations interviewed

had limited growth possibilities, as indicated by their chief executive officers, the size of the enterprise appears to be a factor influencing the greater reliance on exchange mechanisms. According to March and Simon (1958), exchange mechanisms, such as incentive payment schemes, are applied more effectively in small rather than large organizations. Thus, it seems that, since the executives recognize that there are limited possibilities for expansion, they pay their employees above the market average, in order to compensate, for instance, for the apparent lack of growth prospects in the careers of the individuals. This factor is acknowledged by some employees who stated:

"When you work for a small company like this, there is not a lot of room or time to expand your skills".

"I feel I could do more for the bank, but as a small branch in the U.K. there are not many prospects of job change or promotion".

One bank manager emphasized clearly the continuous nature of exchange processes being applied by his bank. He explained:

"Here we are valued for what we are doing not for what we have done in the past. Thus we

have to maintain a constant effort in order to keep the Bank pleased".

When asked how he, as an individual, viewed this economic exchange of interests, he replied:

"Take my example ...I have been in this organization for many years. I spent most of my life working for this bank ... now that I am getting old I can't just change jobs and start a new life elsewhere...".

According to Sheldon (1971) the greater the individual's investments in the organization the greater his dependency and, consequently, the smaller his willingness to leave the organization. This kind of involvement with the organization would probably be labelled by Argyris (1954a) as a state of "dependency". Thus, sometimes individuals adapt to the exchange framework for calculative reasons and/or for the lack of alternative options in their careers. This bank manager perceived himself as "getting old", which probably meant, in his frame of reference, decreasing employment opportunities with other employers.

One possible explanation for the perceived lack of the use of socialization mechanisms by both

banks and organizations appears to be connected with different procedures adopted for recruiting, selecting and training employees in Brazil and in small overseas branches. In view of the relatively competitive labour market in Brazil, the selection of personnel for banks and large organizations is normally made through testing candidates on a national or regional basis. Applicants for 'Banco do Brasil' for instance, may find themselves competing among hundreds of individuals. Therefore, these organizations in Brazil usually have the opportunity to develop a careful screening process selecting individuals with the desired skills, attitudes and values for particular occupations. Probably the majority of applicants already know what to expect from the organization, through a "self-selection" process. (Mangham, 1979). On the other hand, in the London branches with the exception of the top executives who come from Brazil, most employees are selected in a less competitive manner and, a few others placed through political godfathers.

Another variable which might influence the socialization process is the extent to which, both the individual and the organization hold preconceptions about the cultural background of each other. (Sirota and Greenwood, 1971). Based on these assumptions, it would be hard to conceive that Brazilian organizations

would be perfectly happy with the results of their socialization efforts.

Hypotheses No. 1 and 2 utilized the present (P), ideal (I) and D (Extent of Perceived Deprivation) summary measures, to analyze the individual and organizational perceptions of the use of each goal integration model separately. Hypothesis No. 3 will compare both the individual and the organizational perceptions of these models, at the same time, utilizing the present (P) measures. Hypothesis No. 4 will develop a similar analysis employing the D measures.

5.4 HYPOTHESIS No. 3

Hypothesis No. 3 proposed that there would be significant differences between individual and organizational perceptions of mechanisms associated with each of the three goal integration models. The hypothesis was:

H1 : There are significant differences between the individual and organizational perceptions of mechanisms associated with the exchange, socialization and accommodation models.

For testing this hypothesis, a multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the data of each sample, using the discriminant analysis subprogram within the SPSS (Klecka, 1975), to determine whether there would be significant differences between groups as defined below:

SAMPLE 1 (Banks)

GROUP 1.1 : Individuals

MODEL	VARIABLES (Present Scale)
Exchange	From V15 to V33
Socialization	From V35 to V53

Accommodation From V55 to V75

GROUP 1.2 : Banks

SAMPLE 2 (Other Organizations)

GROUP 2.1 : Individuals

MODEL	VARIABLES (Present Scale)
Exchange	From V15 to V33
Socialization	From V35 to V53
Accommodation	From V55 to V75

GROUP 2.2 : Organizations

Table 5.7 summarizes the results of a multivariate analysis of variance performed on the set of variables of each model. The results of the statistical analysis performed on both samples indicated that using a 0.01 level of significance, H1 was supported by the organization sample, while strongly rejected by the bank sample. Thus, the alternative hypothesis was partially supported by the data. Considering each model separately, the results were as follows:

Exchange Model

At the 0.01 significance level, the hypothesis was supported by the organization sample (p

	Wilk's	Lambda	Chi-square	D.F.	Significance
SAMPLE 1 (Banks)					
EXCHANGE	0.7203935		10.495	10	0.3982
SOCIALIZATION	0.7131812		10.817	10	0.3720
ACCOMMODATION	0.5918533		16.784	10	0.0793
SAMPLE 2 (Organizations)					
EXCHANGE	0.6186980		23.047	10	0.0106
SOCIALIZATION	0.5743709		26.615	10	0.0030
ACCOMMODATION	0.5415159		29.442	10	0.0011

Table 5.7 Multivariate Analysis of Variance of individual and organizational measures (P) of goal integration mechanisms.

= 0.01) while strongly rejected by the bank sample ($p = 0.39$).

Socialization model

Similarly, for the socialization model, at the 0.01 level of significance, the alternative hypothesis was supported by Organizations ($p = 0.003$) and strongly rejected by Banks. ($p = 0.37$)

Accommodation model

Using a 0.01 level of significance H1 was supported by the organization sample, ($p = 0.001$). However, for banks, even using a 0.05 level there was no evidence to support H1. ($p = 0.07$).

The SPSS discriminant subprogram also provides a tool for the interpretation of data, which permits the visualization of the relationship between groups. Since discriminant functions may be considered as axes of a geometrical space, (Nie et al, 1975:436) this enables the graphical representation of the spatial relationships among the groups on a plot.

According to this principle, when there are only two groups being analyzed, the plots of the discriminant scores may be represented on a continuum, showing the clustering of cases within the groups. The discriminant scores for each individual and organization case were calculated by taking the

products of the discriminant coefficients by the respective variables and adding these products plus the constant.

Considering the variables associated with each of the integration models, perhaps, the plot of the discriminant scores will permit the visualization of the results and simplify the analysis of the assumed distance between the individual and the organization.

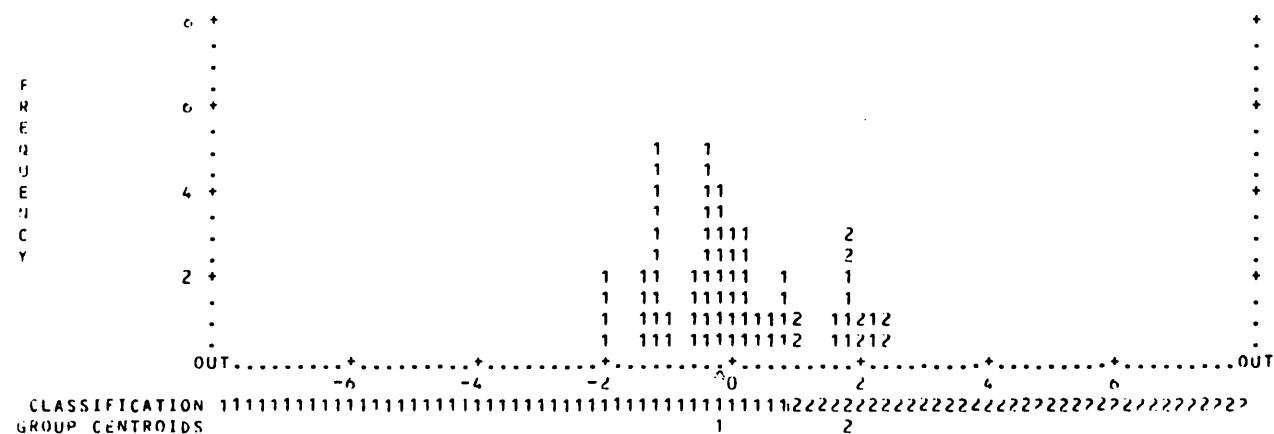
Figures 5.5 and 5.6 show the frequencies of the discriminant scores on the continuum representing the discriminant function for the three different models.

In the middle of the x axis there is a zero point representing the grand-mean of all the classified cases. Each group mean is also indicated below the x axis of the histogram. The y axis presents the frequency, and the symbols 1 and 2 are used to represent individuals and organizations, respectively.

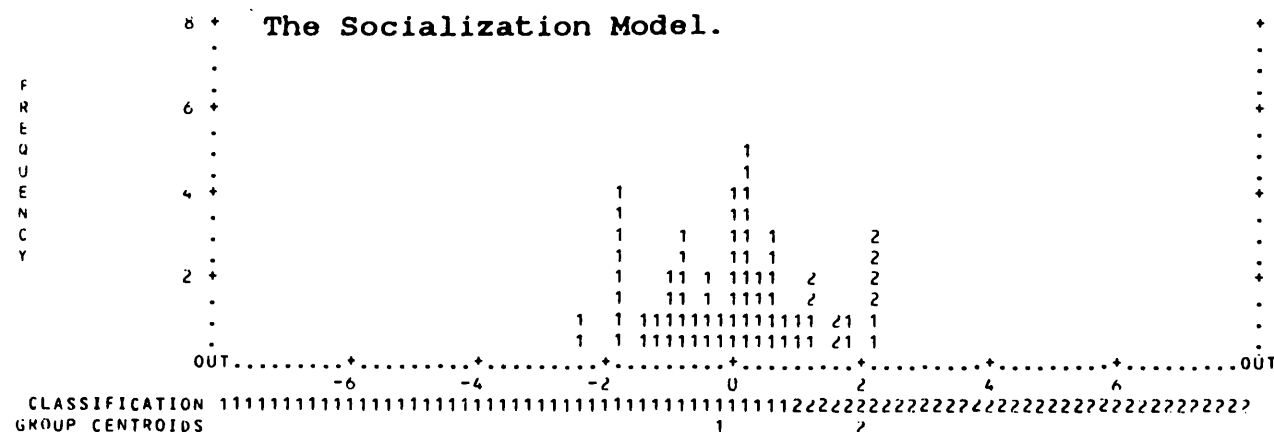
The results of the statistical analysis performed on the bank and organization samples seem to suggest that:

In banks, there was no evidence of differences between individual and organizational perceptions of the three goal integration mechanisms associated with the exchange, socialization and

The Exchange Model. ALL-GROUPS STACKED HISTOGRAM



The Socialization Model.



The Accommodation Model.

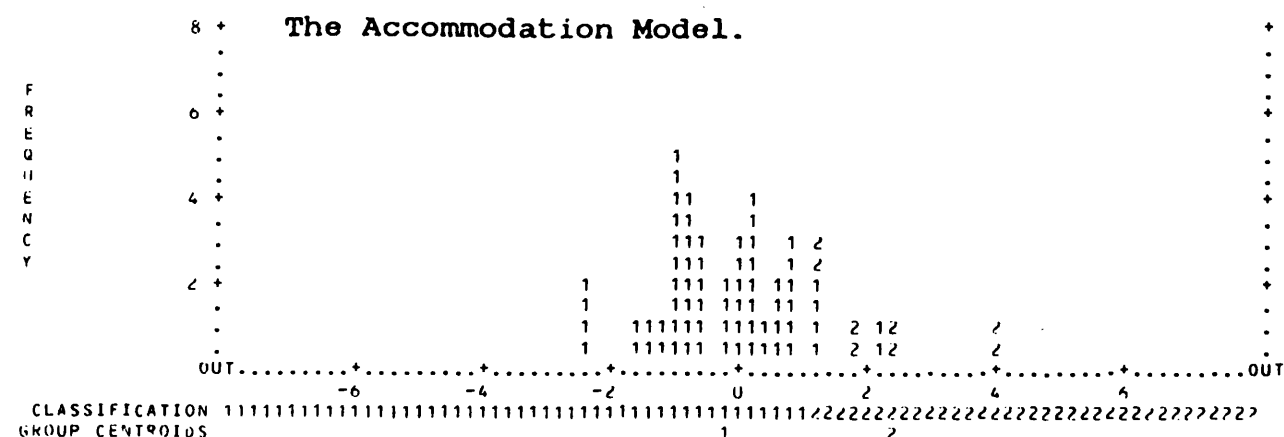
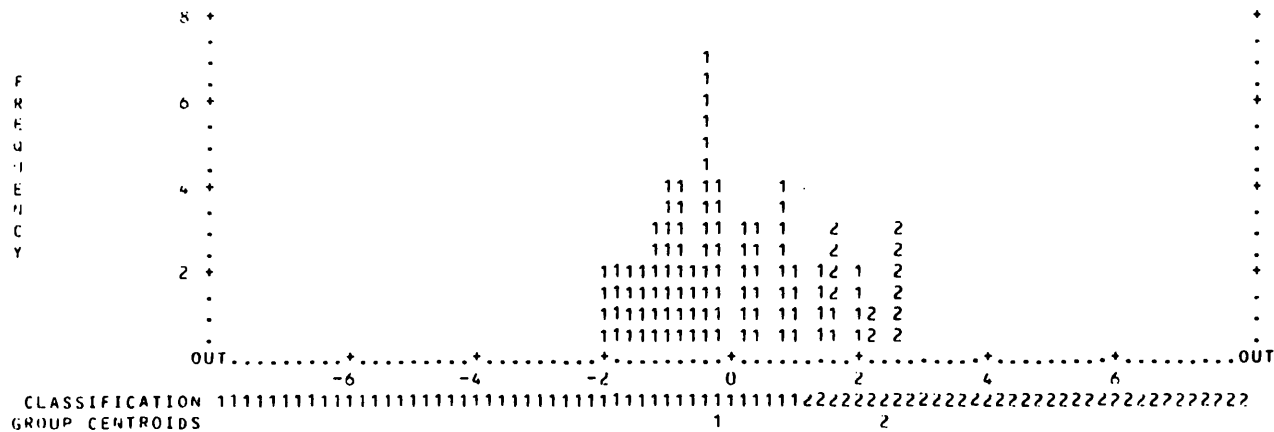
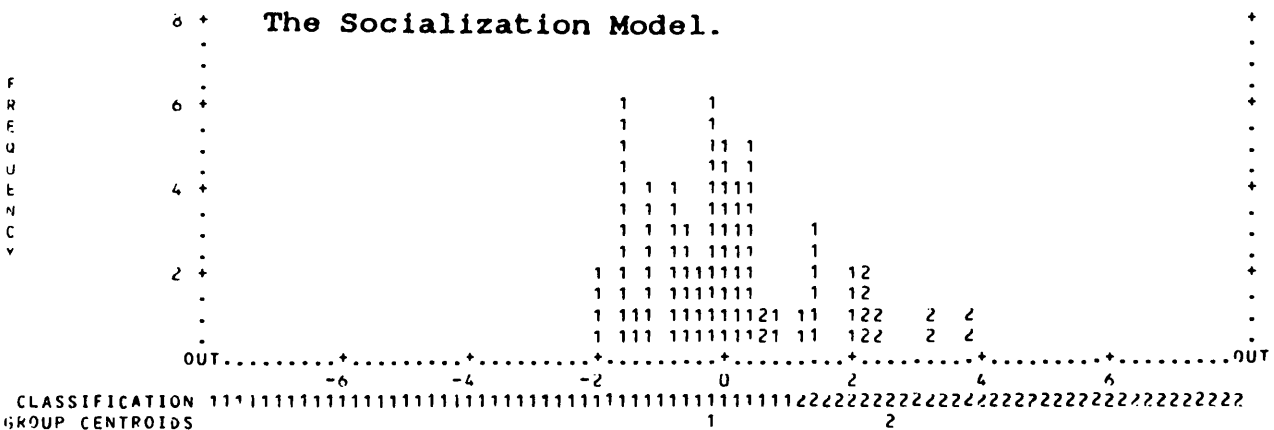


Figure 5.5 Histograms of discriminant scores of individual and organizational P-measures of integration mechanisms - Bank Sample.

ALL-GROUPS STACKED HISTOGRAM



The Socialization Model.



The Accommodation Model.

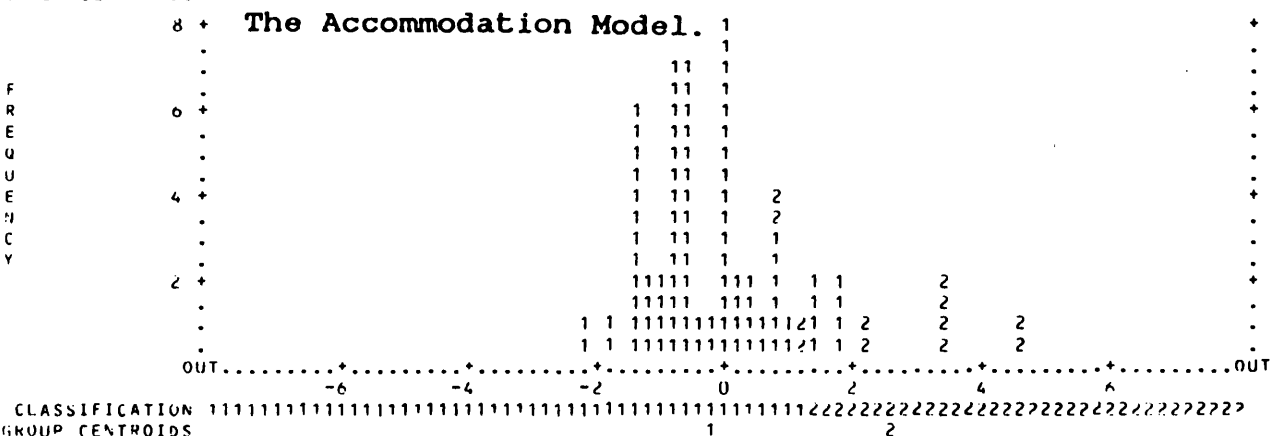


Figure 5.6 Histograms of discriminant scores of individual and organizational P-measures of integration mechanisms - Organization Sample.

accommodation models. This appears to indicate that there is a relatively compatible perception, by both sides, of the use of the three integration models. This is further indicated by analyzing figure 5.5 which shows the distribution of individuals along the discriminant continuum, for each model. It indicates a moderate overlapping between individuals (symbol "1") and Banks (Symbol "2"). The overlapping can be seen above the region delimited by the group centroids and is represented by the superimposition of symbols.

In the bank sample, perhaps, it is interesting to note that the overlap consisted only of individuals of group 1 which tended to have perceptions similar to those of the banks, in respect to the use of integration mechanisms. In the assignment of cases, these individuals were classified, by the discriminant function, closer to the bank's group. Thus, as can be seen in figure 5.5 five individuals (Symbol 1) appear in the bank's side of the continuum (Symbol 2), for the exchange model, four for the socialization and three for the accommodation model. According to Klecka's (1975:438) view, these misclassifications "may be due to deviant cases, erroneous assignment of the cases to the group or the inadequacy of the variables used to perfectly discriminate between the groups".

The organization sample seemed to perceive greater difference in the use of accommodation and socialization mechanisms. In order of magnitude the values for each model were: Accommodation ($p = 0.001$), socialization ($p = 0.003$), and exchange ($p = 0.01$). An examination of figure 5.6 indicates that although a similar proportion of individuals were also misclassified in the three models, the overlap between individual and organizational scores consisted of both individual and organizational apparently deviant cases. In the accommodation model, as shown in figure 5.6 two organizations' perceptions of the integration mechanisms were closer to those of their employees than the perceptions of the other organizations.

Perhaps, the relatively compatible perception of the use of integration mechanisms, found between individuals and bank organizations, can be interpreted in terms of what Chris Argyris (1954a, 1958) calls the "right type" of individuals. According to Argyris, bank organizations tend to attract quiet, passive, obedient individuals, whose personality characteristics involve:

"a) A strong desire for economic security, job stability, and predictability in their lives;

b) A strong desire to be left alone, to work in relative isolation where they have control over their own behaviour, and

c) A strong dislike of aggressiveness and/or hostility in themselves or in others".
(Argyris, 1954a:68; 1958:506)

The interviews with bank executives and employees, seemed to confirm Argyris' proposition concerning the "right types". This "right type" of individual seems to predominate at various levels in banks, creating a kind of homogeneity which can bring both advantages and disadvantages for the bank. Among the advantages cited by Argyris (1954a) are the chances of fewer personality clashes, relatively little administrative pressure, and more possibilities of adaptation to the typically slow process of promotion in banks. By promoting the right-type behaviour, however, banks might find themselves in a situation that, when there is an opportunity to expand operations, they might not be employing the needed aggressive employees to face the challenge. In addition, Argyris (1954a) raises the question: "What happens to the feelings of aggression and hostility if they may not be expressed - or if expressed they incur displeasure?" Obviously, from a psychological and

physiological point of view, there might be serious consequences of "bottled-up" feelings. Among these, increased levels of anxiety, reduction in mental and physical performance, and other involuntary reactions to the demanding personality type that the banks choose for their employees, or that the individuals adopt for the banks (Kelman, 1958, 1961). One clear example of "bottled-up" feelings was provided by a bank manager himself:

"At present, I cannot complain about this institution because I am still a part of it. Nevertheless, as soon as I get out of here I will be the first to tell the truth..."

One individual also stated,

"Although I work in a friendly working atmosphere, I dislike having to go against my better nature, occasionally".

Regarding the other sample, (other organizations) the views of the individuals and those of the organizations were significantly different, in relation to the three goal integration models. The accommodation model, particularly showed the most significant difference of perception. The interviews with organization executives helped to clarify the

organizational perception. One executive seemed to acknowledge that the organization's ability to use accommodation mechanisms was somewhat limited by its size. He explained:

"We try to be effective in creating opportunities for new assignments, transferring them as per request to a new job, giving free staff training, paying for seminars related to their specialization, paying their school fees, etc... However, being a small unit in the U.K. we can not be very complete on these matters..."

Some statements provided by employees also help to illustrate the individuals present demands in relation to the use of accommodation mechanisms. Two interviewees, however, recognized that the small size of the organization appears to be a constraint affecting the use of accommodation mechanisms. They commented:

"I believe that due to the small size of the organization, at this time, my qualifications and potential have not yet been fully utilized."

"I would like to participate in decisions, but most decisions are made at the head office in Brazil, so we do not have really any influence..."

"I don't think I can say much in here about chances for developing my capabilities..."

Summarizing, in the bank sample no significant difference was found even at the 0.05 level. In the organization sample the differences for the exchange, socialization and accommodation models were highly significant.

5.5 HYPOTHESIS No. 4

Hypothesis No. 4 proposed that there would be significant differences between the individual and organizational measures of the extent of perceived deprivation associated with the three goal integration mechanisms. The hypothesis was:

H1: There are significant differences between the individual and organizational measures of the extent of perceived deprivation associated with the exchange, socialization and accommodation models.

In order to determine whether there would be significant differences between individual and organizational measures of the extent of perceived deprivation associated with the goal integration models, a multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the data, using the discriminant analysis subprogram within the SPSS (Klecka, 1975: 434-467). In general terms, the extent of perceived deprivation represents the difference between present and ideal perceptions of the use of each goal integration model. Thus, for testing the hypothesis the following variables were utilized for the individual and organization groups:

MODEL	VARIABLES
EXCHANGE	$E15 = V16 - V15$
	$E17 = V18 - V17$
	$E19 = V20 - V19$
	$E21 = V22 - V21$
	$E23 = V24 - V23$
	$E25 = V26 - V25$
	$E27 = V28 - V27$
	$E29 = V30 - V29$
	$E31 = V32 - V31$
	$E33 = V34 - V33$
SOCIALIZATION	$S35 = V36 - V35$
	$S37 = V38 - V37$
	$S39 = V40 - V39$
	$S41 = V42 - V41$
	$S43 = V44 - V43$
	$S45 = V46 - V45$
	$S47 = V48 - V47$
	$S49 = V50 - V49$
	$S51 = V52 - V51$
	$S53 = V54 - V53$

ACCOMMODATION	$A55 = V56 - V55$
	$A57 = V58 - V57$
	$A59 = V60 - V59$
	$A61 = V62 - V61$
	$A63 = V64 - V63$
	$A65 = V66 - V65$
	$A67 = V68 - V67$
	$A69 = V70 - V69$
	$A71 = V72 - V71$
	$A73 = V74 - V73$

The results of the multivariate analysis of variance and the associated levels of significance for each model and sample are provided in table 5.8. An analysis of table 5.8 indicates that, using a 0.05 level of significance, the hypothesis was partially supported by both samples.

Figures 5.7 and 5.8 present the spatial relationship between the individual and organizational groups for each integration model. In these figures, the frequencies of the discriminant scores of individuals are represented by the symbol 1, while those of the organizations by the symbol 2.

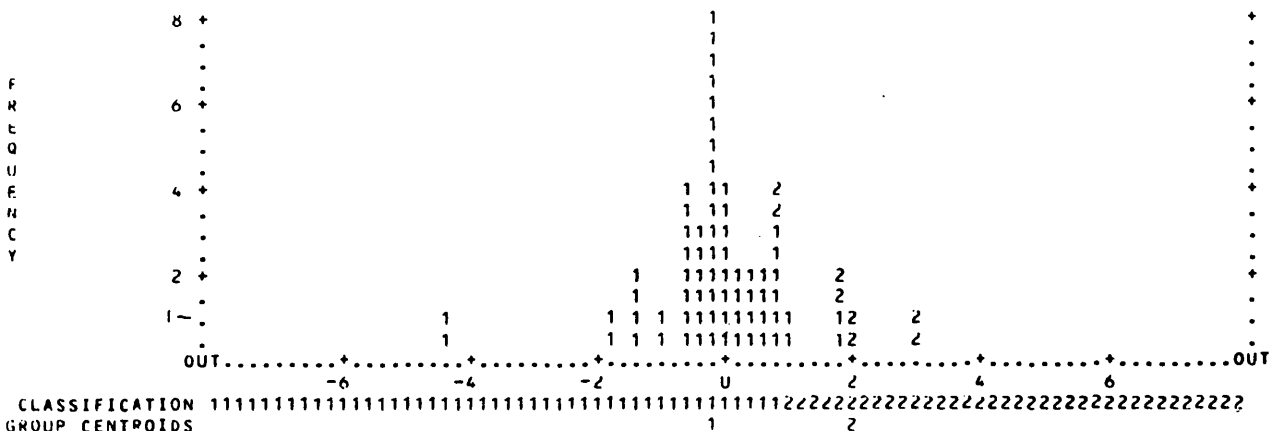
An examination of table 5.8 and figures 5.7 and 5.8 reveals the following results for each model

	Wilk's	Lambda	Chi-square	D.F.	Significance
SAMPLE 1 (Banks)					
EXCHANGE	0.6954264		11.623	10	0.3111
SOCIALIZATION	0.4331389		26.774	10	0.0028
ACCOMMODATION	0.5859959		17.102	10	0.0721
SAMPLE 2 (Organizations)					
EXCHANGE	0.7401268		14.445	10	0.1537
SOCIALIZATION	0.5510179		28.607	10	0.0014
ACCOMMODATION	0.6295694		22.211	10	0.0141

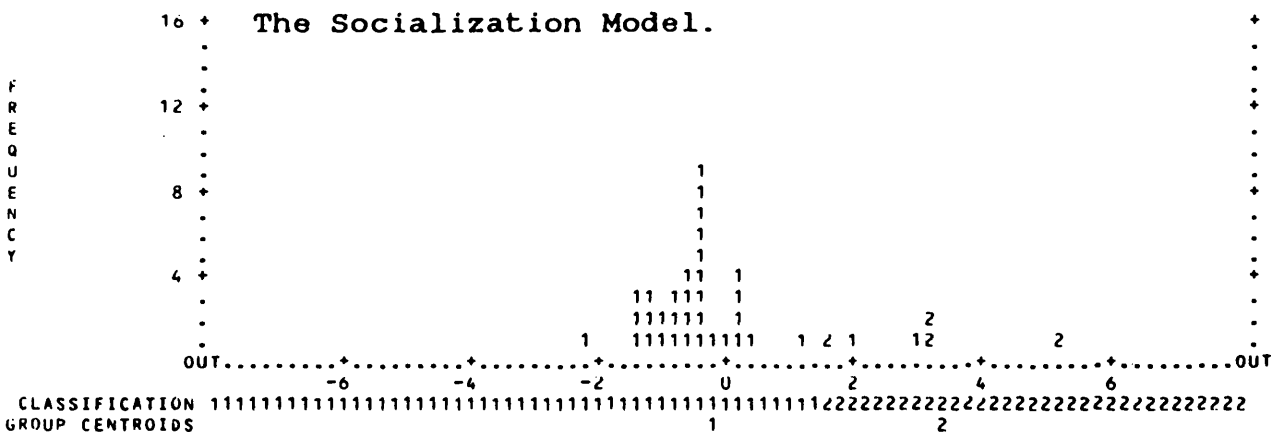
Table 5.8 Multivariate Analysis of Variance of individual and organizational measures (D) of goal integration mechanisms.

The Exchange Model.

ALL-GROUPS STACKED HISTOGRAM



The Socialization Model.



The Accommodation Model.

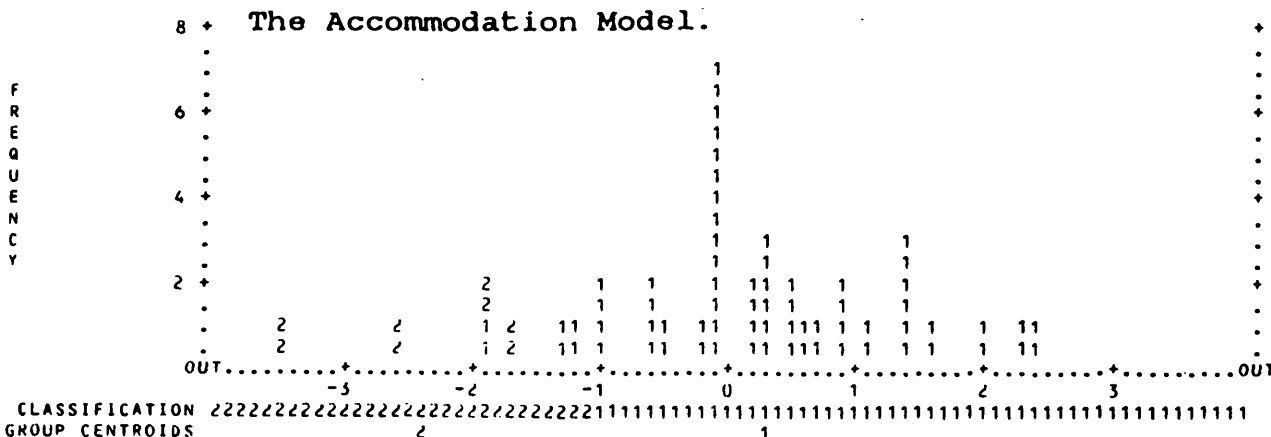
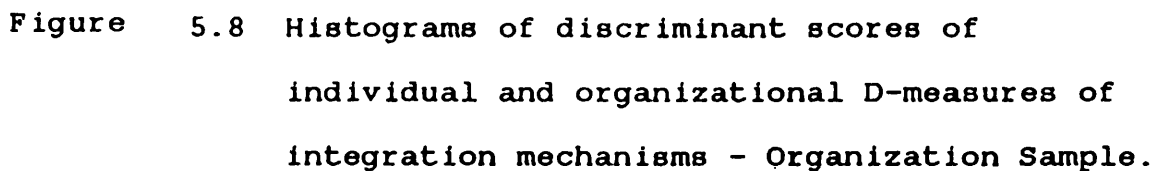
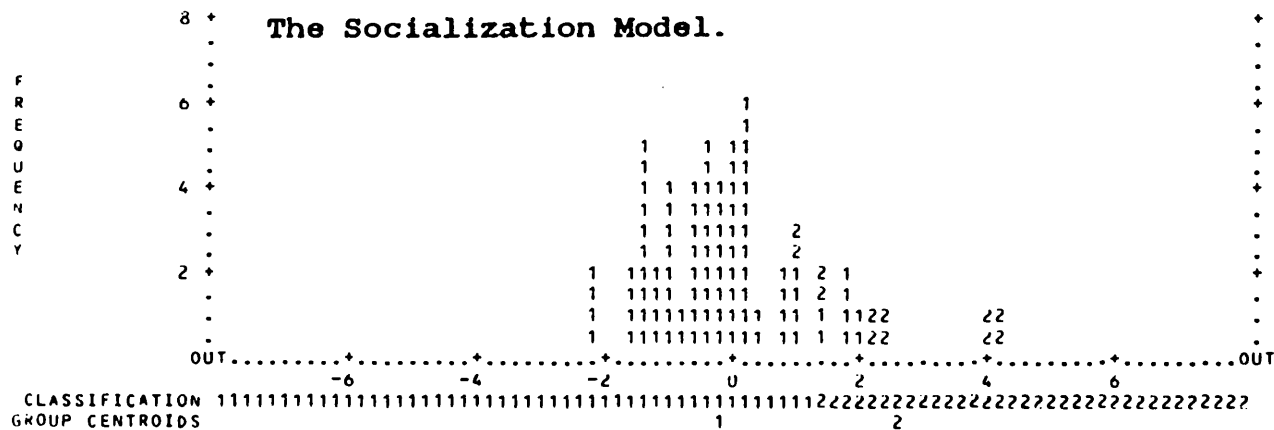


Figure 5.7 Histograms of discriminant scores of individual and organizational D-measures of integration mechanisms - Bank Sample.

ALL-GROUPS STACKED HISTOGRAM



separately:

EXCHANGE MODEL

Using a 0.05 level of significance, H1 was strongly rejected by both the bank ($p = 0.31$) and organization ($p = 0.15$) samples.

An analysis of figures 5.7 and 5.8 indicates the existence of some overlap between the discriminant scores of the individual and organizational groups. As can be seen in figure 5.7 (Banks) there are three superimpositions of symbols in the region between the group centroids. Two individuals were classified in the organization side of the continuum, while only 1 case from the organization group was considered misclassified. In the allocation of cases the discriminant subprogram assigned them a higher probability of being from the other group. In other words, these cases consisted of respondents from one group, having perceptions similar to those of the other group, in relation to the extent of deprivation associated with the use of exchange mechanisms.

In the organization sample, (figure 5.8) the overlap between discriminant scores of the two groups was relatively higher than that observed in banks. Ten individuals were classified in the organization side of the discriminant continuum, and two out of six

organizations were misclassified in relation to their original group.

Broadly speaking, in both samples there appears to be no significant difference between individual and organizational perceptions of the extent of deprivation associated with exchange mechanisms. The discriminant scores of the two samples seem to suggest that in the bank sample a higher proportion of individuals tended to have perceptions similar to those of the banks.

Thus, there appears to be a relatively compatible perception, by individuals and organizations, of the extent of deprivation associated with the use of exchange mechanisms. As it was previously discussed, (Hypothesis No. 1 and 2) the extent of deprivation connected with the use of exchange mechanisms was the smallest among the three models. The findings from hypotheses 1 and 2 suggest that the exchange model was being used predominantly by both banks and organizations, in detriment, perhaps of the other two models. One general bank manager emphasized clearly his reliance on exchange mechanisms, as follows:

"The bank has sought to motivate its employees successfully by paying good

salaries, maintaining good relationships with the staff, and by helping them financially to solve their personal problems... Besides that, we also provide a holiday in Brazil for one employee each year..."

From the standpoint of the individuals, they also seemed to be satisfied with the current use of exchange mechanisms. For instance, when asked about the positive aspects of his work in general, one bank employee stated:

"My background ranges from legal training to post room. My present job utilizes as many of my skills as practicable in any job... The salary is good and we get annual increases according to the inflation, so there are no grounds for complaint."

Another individual interviewed, revealed that although he recognized that he was exchanging his services for money, he had some means of controlling the amount of skill, energy and effort dedicated to the organization.

"If the organization decides to pay me only 6000 pounds, that is all right... They will

get only 6000's worth of work...".

This appears to be an illustration of Adams' (1965) inequity theory. Broadly speaking, when individuals perceive themselves in inequity relationships with the organization, they might attempt to reduce the inequity by varying their inputs or contributions to the organization, such as the amount of time, effort, energy, etc. In the statement above, the individual seemed to indicate that he could control his performance according to the amount of monetary incentives received from the organization.

SOCIALIZATION MODEL

At the 0.05 level of significance, there was no evidence to reject H1 for the bank ($p = 0.002$) and organization ($p = 0.001$) samples. (Table 5.8). Thus, a significant difference was found between individual and organizational perceptions of the extent of deprivation associated with the use of the socialization model.

An examination of the histogram of the discriminant scores indicates that, in banks (Figure 5.7) only 2 individual cases, out of 39 were classified in the organizational side of the continuum. In organizations, however, 5 misclassifications out of 49

cases occurred, namely 4 individuals and 1 organization. (Figure 5.8). In general, for the socialization model the overlap between the groups was relatively smaller than that observed for the exchange model. This suggests that there appears to be a less compatible opinion between the groups concerning the present and ideal states of socialization mechanisms.

As shown in figures 5.3 and 5.4 (Hypothesis 2), from the point of view of the organization, the socialization model presented the largest extent of perceived deprivation in both samples. From the individual perspective, however, reference to figures 5.1 and 5.2, (Hypothesis 1) shows that the largest extent of perceived deprivation was found in the use of accommodation mechanisms. When both the individual and organizational measures of the extent of perceived deprivation associated with the socialization model were compared (Table 5.8), a significant difference of perception was found.

One bank manager interviewed stressed the importance attached to socialization and exchange mechanisms as means of integrating individual and organizational interests. He commented:

"The bank does care for its employees... This is done by employing good staff, giving them

effective training and retaining them, by giving proper rewards, thereby creating a staff interested in the success of the bank and feeling a part of that success."

ACCOMMODATION MODEL

With regard to the accommodation model, using a 0.05 level of significance H1 was rejected by the bank sample ($p = 0.07$), while supported by the organization sample. ($p = 0.01$) (Table 5.8).

As can be seen in figure 5.7, (Banks) the overlap between individual and organizational scores was restricted to three individual cases which tended to the other side of the discriminant continuum. In organizations (Figure 5.8) a slightly higher degree of overlap was observed between the groups. Four individuals were classified in the organization side of the continuum, and one organizational respondent was found beyond the limits of his group.

In the organization sample, the individual and the organization groups appeared to have differed in their perceptions of the extent of deprivation in the use of accommodation mechanisms.

In general, in banks, no difference was found between the individual and the organizational views. Thus, there appears to be a relatively homogeneous

perception as to the present and ideal states of accommodation mechanisms, which seem to support, once again, Argyris (1954a, 1958) conception of the "right type" personality, as discussed in the previous hypothesis.

Assuming that individuals possessing higher levels of education tend to aspire more possibilities for growth, advancement and the satisfaction of their higher order needs, (Argyris, 1964; Bennis, 1966; Blake and Mouton, 1964) this might help to explain why individuals from organizations were those who indicated more disparities in the use of accommodation mechanisms. An examination of the level of education of the respondents reveals that 36.7% of individuals from the organization sample had an university level of education, as opposed to only 14.3% in the bank sample. Thus, the higher level of education found in the organization sample might have influenced the greater importance attached to the use of accommodation mechanisms. The demand for accommodation mechanisms among organization employees was made explicit in the following statements:

"Pay is still reasonable, colleagues are nice, officers are OK, job is secure but, I feel like a small piece in a big machine,

without participation or information".

"I would like to act independently, showing initiative in solving difficult problems ... However, the tasks given to me are mostly "run-of-the-mill" problems...".

One organization executive seemed to acknowledge that exchange, rather than accommodation mechanisms, were being emphasized by his organization. The following comment seems to provide a representative view of the organization regarding the relative lack of accommodation mechanisms.

"The organization has a good scheme of fringe benefits and its salary scale is not below the market's average. It can't be denied, however, that some members of the staff complain that the organization is not doing a very good job in meeting their needs as individuals".

5.6 HYPOTHESIS No. 5

Hypothesis No. 5 was formulated to test whether individual measures of integration mechanisms would be positively related to each other. For the purposes of this analysis, the stated hypothesis was:

H1 : Measures of the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, as perceived by the individuals, will show positive relationships to each other.

For testing the hypothesis, a series of bivariate correlation programs was run on both samples, using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (r) to test the strength of the linear relationship between variables, the direction of the relationship and the associated significance levels.

Table 5.9 presents the individuals' correlation coefficients (r) of summary measures of the use of exchange, (MEP) socialization, (MSP) and accommodation (MAP) mechanisms, for both samples.

An examination of the output of the correlation analysis shows that the hypothesis was supported at significant levels by both samples ($P < 0.01$). All the relationships were found to be

P E A R S O N C O R R E L A T I O N C O E F F I C I E N T S

SUBFILE BANI

	MSP	MAP		MAP
MEP	0.7590	0.5617	MSP	0.7713
	(35)	(35)		(35)
	P=0.000	P=0.000		P=0.000

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / SIGNIFICANCE)

SUBFILE ORGI

	MSP	MAP		MAP
MEP	0.5901	0.3680	MSP	0.6121
	(49)	(49)		(49)
	P=0.000	P=0.009		P=0.000

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / SIGNIFICANCE)

**Table 5.9 Correlation among integration mechanisms -
Individual measures.**

positive.

BANK RESPONDENTS

In banks, the goal integration mechanisms associated with the use of the socialization model were found to be significantly correlated to those associated with the accommodation model ($r = 0.77$, $p < 0.001$). This was the highest correlation coefficient found among the relationship of the models in both samples.

Respondents also perceived the use of exchange and socialization mechanisms as being related to each other. There was a significant relationship between these models. ($r = 0.75$, $p < 0.001$)

The relationship between the exchange and accommodation mechanisms was relatively milder, ($r = 0.56$, $p < 0.001$) but reached significance.

ORGANIZATION RESPONDENTS

It was found that the organization sample perceived the relationship between accommodation and socialization mechanisms to be milder ($r = 0.61$, $p < 0.001$) than that of the bank sample ($r = 0.77$, $p < 0.001$). This was also the highest correlation coefficient ($r = 0.61$) among the three pairs of variables considered in the organization sample.

The relationship between exchange and socialization mechanisms, ($r = 0.59$, $p < 0.001$) was relatively milder, compared with the results of the same relationship for the bank sample. ($r = 0.75$, $p < 0.001$).

A relatively weak relationship was found between the exchange and accommodation mechanisms. ($r = 0.36$, $p < 0.01$). In the bank sample, the equivalent correlation was higher. ($r = 0.56$, $p < 0.001$).

According to Barret's (1977) view of the relationship between mechanisms associated the use of the exchange, socialization and accommodation models, the moderate to strong correlation between the accommodation and socialization models found in both samples of this study, seems to suggest that respondents perceived these mechanisms generally compatible with each other. These results appear to support Barret's findings where accommodation and socialization mechanisms seemed to be used together, i.e., approximately 21 % of the variation in the use of one model was linked to variation in the other. In this study, this relationship was found to be stronger, i.e. 59 and 37 % for the bank and organization samples, respectively.

The medium to moderate correlation between the exchange and socialization mechanisms found in both

samples, seemed to indicate that these mechanisms might be used simultaneously. To some extent, these results seem to support Barret's findings related to the same models. In this study, although the strength of the relationship between exchange and socialization mechanisms, in both samples was found to be considerably higher than that found by Barret, positive relationships were detected. In view of the fact that Barret's correlation coefficients for this pair of variables failed to reach significance, at the 0.01 level, perhaps the comparison might be misleading. However, in general, he suggested that the exchange and socialization models could be used either independent of each other or concurrently.

The results concerning the relationship between the exchange and accommodation mechanisms also appear to support Barret's findings. He reported a negative relationship between them and suggested that sometimes these two models could be considered as substitutes for each other. In this study although a positive relationship was found in both samples, the correlation coefficients were the lowest among the three pairs of variables. Perhaps, this might be an indication that, to some extent, respondents perceived that these two models may be used together, and not necessarily as substitutes for each other.

Synthesizing, the results of the correlation analysis seemed to reveal the following major points:

First, despite the differences found in the magnitude of the correlation coefficients, both samples perceived the relationship between accommodation and socialization mechanisms to be stronger than that of the exchange and socialization mechanisms, which in turn, was considered stronger than the relationship between exchange and accommodation mechanisms.

Second, a similar pattern of relationships for the three pairs of variables was reported by Barret, even taking into account differences in the magnitude of the correlation coefficients and a negative relationship found between the exchange and accommodation models. Nevertheless, there seems to be a pattern of relationship characterizing the exchange, socialization and accommodation models.

Third, the results of this study reveal that although theoretically incompatible, mechanisms associated with the exchange and accommodation models might, in practice, be applied together. In other words, although the mechanisms associated with the classical school of thought (Exchange Mechanisms) appear to be conceptually different from those proposed by the human relations theorists (i.e. Accommodation Mechanisms), in reality, they tend to coexist,

representing institutional approaches for increasing the possibilities of overlap between individual and organizational interests.

5.7 HYPOTHESIS No. 6

Hypothesis No. 6 suggested that measures of the use of integration mechanisms, as perceived by the organizations would be positively related to each other. Stated in the usual notation, the hypothesis was:

H1: Measures of the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, as perceived by the organizations, will show positive relationships to each other.

To determine the existence of positive relationships among the exchange, socialization and accommodation models, a series of bivariate correlation programs was run on the data of both samples, using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (r) and the associated levels of significance. The summary measures of the use of exchange (MEP), socialization (MSP) and accommodation (MAP), consisting of the mean score of ten variables each, were utilized for testing the hypothesis.

Table 5.10 presents the results of the correlation analysis performed on the weighted data of both samples. An examination of the data in table 5.10 indicates that, at the 0.05 level of significance the

SUBFILE BANC

	MSP	MAP		MAP
MEP	0.1637	0.4940	MSP	-0.4788
	(35)	(35)		(35)
	P=0.347	P=0.003		P=0.004

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / SIGNIFICANCE)

SUBFILE ORGC

	MSP	MAP		MAP
MEP	0.4234	0.1098	MSP	0.8678
	(49)	(49)		(49)
	P=0.002	P=0.453		P=0.000

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / SIGNIFICANCE)

**Table 5.10 Correlation among integration mechanisms -
Organizational measures.**

hypothesis was rejected by both samples. Thus, according to the organizations' point of view, in both banks and organizations, the three, goal integration models were not found to be positively related to each other.

BANKS

From the point of view of the executives, there seemed to be a very weak ($r = 0.16$, $p > 0.05$) relationship between the use of exchange and socialization mechanisms. Although the relationship failed to reach significance, the low association between these two models seemed to indicate that they tend to be independent from each other.

It has been interesting to note, however, that bank executives, as well as individuals, (Hypothesis No. 5) perceived a moderate, significant relationship ($r = 0.49$, $p < 0.01$) between the use of exchange and accommodation mechanisms. Contrary to Barret's (1977) view, this suggests that these two models might be used together, as a complement to each other, rather than acting as substitutes for one another.

The relationship between the socialization and accommodation models was found to be negative. ($r = -0.47$, $p < 0.01$). These results contradict Barret's

view that these two models are compatible with each other and tend to be used as alternatives to the traditional exchange approach. The negative relationship among the use of socialization and accommodation mechanisms, as perceived by bank executives, seems to suggest that these mechanisms might also be used as substitutes for one another. For instance, the banks might emphasize socialization programmes in detriment of accommodation processes such as participative decision-making, objective-setting, etc. When asked about possible means of promoting the integration between individual and organizational interests, one bank executive explained the importance attributed to socialization mechanisms as follows.

"I think that we are quite effective in motivating our employees successfully ... We give them free staff training, we pay seminars related to their specialization, we pay their school fees..."

OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

The data from the organization sample (Table 5.10) indicate that the relationship between the socialization and accommodation mechanisms ($r = 0.86$, $p < 0.001$) was relatively strong and highly significant.

The correlation coefficient associated with this relationship was the highest found in the data for both samples, suggesting that approximately seventy three percent of the variation in the use of one model can be linked to the variation in the use of the other.

A positive, moderate relationship was found between the use of the socialization and exchange models ($r = 0.42$, $p < 0.01$). Nearly seventeen percent of the variation in one model can be explained by variation in the other.

The lowest correlation coefficient among the three pairs of variables was found for the exchange-accommodation relationship. ($r = 0.10$, $p > 0.05$).

Summarizing the major points which emerged from the analysis of the relationships among the goal integration models, as perceived by bank and organization executives:

1. In general terms, considering the differences in the strength and direction of the relationship, organization executives perceived the relationship between accommodation and socialization mechanisms to be stronger than the exchange-socialization relationship, which, in turn, was found to be

stronger than the exchange-accommodation relationship. A similar pattern of relationship among the pairs of variables was reported by Barret, and observed by the individual respondents (Hypothesis No. 5).

2. Broadly speaking, bank executives seemed to perceive the relationship among the pairs of variables in a different way. With the exception of the exchange-socialization relationship, the results from the other sets of variables seem to contrast with the pattern of relationships observed by individuals and executives from other organizations. Thus, these findings show that, from the viewpoint of bank officials, mechanisms associated with the concept of exchange might be used concurrently with participative or democratic methods for promoting goal integration. In addition, the negative correlation between the socialization and accommodation models appears to indicate that bank executives perceived these mechanisms as alternatives for one another. Considering the relatively high importance attributed to socialization

mechanisms by bank executives (Figure 5.3), this seems to suggest that, if one model is used in detriment of the other, probably socialization mechanisms are preferred.

5.8 HYPOTHESIS No. 7

Hypothesis No. 7 proposed that there would be a significant relationship between the individuals' measures of the use of integration mechanisms and the perceived degree of goal integration achieved in the organization. Stated in a testable form the hypothesis was:

H1: There are significant relationships between measures of the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation, mechanisms, and degree of goal integration achieved in the organization, as perceived by the individuals. Accommodation mechanisms will show a higher positive relationship to goal integration than socialization mechanisms which, in turn, will show a higher positive relationship than exchange mechanisms.

To test this hypothesis, and determine the strength and direction of the relationship between each integration model and the perceived level of goal integration, a series of bivariate correlation programs was run on the data of both samples. Table 5.11 reports the results of the correlation analysis performed on the data, Pearson's product-moment

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

SUBFILE BANI

	MEP	MSP	MAP
SUMARIO	0.7377	0.6788	0.3201
	(35)	(35)	(35)
	P=0.000	P=0.000	P=0.061

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / SIGNIFICANCE)

SUBFILE ORGI

	MEP	MSP	MAP
SUMARIO	0.5328	0.4207	0.2286
	(49)	(49)	(49)
	P=0.000	P=0.003	P=0.114

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / SIGNIFICANCE)

Table 5.11 Correlation Analysis between individual measures of the use of integration mechanisms and the perceived degree of goal integration.

correlation coefficients and the associated levels of significance.

An examination of table 5.11 reveals that, using a 0.05 level of significance, the hypothesis was rejected by both samples. Although all the relationships analyzed were found to be positive, the hypothesized ordering in the strength of the association between the variables was not supported by the findings.

One of the general conclusions reached by Barret (1977) concerning the relationship between the perceived level of goal integration and the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms was that these were differentially effective in achieving various levels of goal integration in the organization. Specifically, he found that accommodation mechanisms revealed the highest positive relationships to goal integration, followed by socialization and exchange mechanisms. Thus, mechanisms associated with the use of the exchange model appeared to be the least effective of all in integrating individual and organizational interests.

This research sought to empirically test Barret's hypothesis concerning the effectiveness of three models in generating goal integration between individual and organizational interests. As can be

seen in table 5.11, the data of this study contradict Barret's proposition regarding the relationship between the use of the exchange, socialization and accommodation models and the perceived level of goal integration achieved in the organization. The results of this analysis suggest that, in both samples, exchange, rather than accommodation mechanisms, appear to explain a higher proportion of the variation in goal integration. Considering the use of each model separately, in banks and organizations, over 54 and 28 per cent of the variation of goal integration can be linked to the variation in the use of exchange mechanisms, respectively. The concomitant variation associated with the socialization model in banks and organizations was 46 (banks) and 17 per cent (other organizations). For the accommodation model, only 10 (banks) and 5 (other organizations) per cent of the variation in goal integration can be explained.

In order to assess the joint relationship between the use of the three models and the perceived level of goal integration, a standard multiple regression analysis was performed on the data of both samples (Nie et al., 1975). Table 5.12 summarizes the results of this analysis. An examination of table 5.12 reveals that in both samples the exchange model (MEP) accounted for a higher proportion (45% in banks and 23%

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F
REGRESSION	3.	16.62406	5.54202	20.77768
RESIDUAL	31.	8.26662	0.26673	0 < 0.01

***** M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N

DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. SUMARIO

SUMMARY TABLE

VARIABLE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	RSQ CHANGE	F
MAP	0.32014	0.10249	0.10249	8.429
MEP	0.74645	0.55718	0.45469	9.800
MSP	0.81722	0.66784	0.11067	10.330

SUBFILE ORGI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F
REGRESSION	3.	10.40902	3.46967	6.51462
RESIDUAL	45.	23.96691	0.53260	0 < 0.01

***** M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N

DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. SUMARIO

SUMMARY TABLE

VARIABLE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	RSQ CHANGE	F
MAP	0.22859	0.05225	0.05225	0.105
MEP	0.53392	0.28507	0.23281	8.035
MSP	0.55027	0.30280	0.01773	1.145

Table 5.12 Multiple Regression Analysis between

individual measures of the use of
integration mechanisms and the
perceived degree of goal integration.

in organizations) of the variation in goal integration (SUMARIO). Regarding the other models, in the bank sample, the socialization and accommodation models explained 11 and 10% of the variation in the perceived level of goal integration. In the organization sample, however, these same models accounted for approximately 1 and 5% of the variation in the dependent variable, but failed to reach significance. Although the pattern of effects of the exchange, socialization and accommodation models on goal integration was relatively similar over the two samples, the strength of the relationship between the three models and the level of goal integration, as perceived by the individuals, varied considerably. (Multiple $R = 0.81$ in banks and 0.55 in organizations).

In general terms, Barret's findings concerning the joint effects of the three models on goal integration suggest that the accommodation and socialization mechanisms explained a significant proportion of the variance in goal integration. The results of this study, however, indicate that, in both samples, these mechanisms accounted for a small proportion of the variance only. Most of the variance in goal integration was attributable to exchange mechanisms. Therefore, considering the effects of the three models together, the data from this study do not

support Barret's contention that the use of accommodation mechanisms appears to be associated with a high degree of goal integration in the organization.

Generally, individuals, particularly those from the bank sample, seemed to perceive the use of exchange mechanisms linked with the level of goal integration achieved in the banks, even when the simultaneous effects of socialization and accommodation mechanisms were considered.

These findings appear to suggest that individuals from both banks and other organizations hold an instrumental view of work. (Goldthorpe, 1968). In other words, the individuals probably regarded the extrinsic or economic aspects of work, such as those encompassed by the exchange model, as instruments for achieving other goals outside the work environment. A similar interpretation is provided by Etzione's (1961) notion of calculative involvement, Argyris' (1964) view of external commitment, and Brown's (1969) idea of pragmatic motivation. Although these conceptions are semantically different, in essence, they represent exchange features of the relationship between the individual and the organization.

5.9 HYPOTHESIS No. 8

It was hypothesized that the organizations' measures of the use of integration mechanisms would be related to the perceived degree of goal integration, in a specific order. Stated in the usual notation, the hypothesis was:

H1: There are significant relationships between measures of the use of exchange, socialization, and accommodation mechanisms, and the degree of goal integration achieved, as perceived by the organization. Accommodation mechanisms will show a higher positive relationship to goal integration than socialization which, in turn, will show a higher positive relationship than exchange mechanisms.

In order to test this hypothesis, a series of correlation analysis was performed on the data of the bank and organization samples, using the Pearson correlation subprogram within the SPSS. The results of the correlation analysis and the associated levels of significance are provided in table 5.13.

An analysis of table 5.13 indicates that, at the 0.05 level of significance, H1 was rejected by both

P E A R S O N C O R R E L A T I O N C O E F F I C I E N T S

SUBFILE BANC

	MEP	MSP	MAP
SUMARIO	0.4338	0.6242	-0.5684
	(35)	(35)	(35)
	P=0.009	P=0.000	P=0.000

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / SIGNIFICANCE)

SUBFILE ORGC

	MEP	MSP	MAP
SUMARIO	0.3011	0.6932	0.3253
	(49)	(49)	(49)
	P=0.036	P=0.000	P=0.023

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / SIGNIFICANCE)

Table 5.13 Correlation Analysis between organizational measures of the use of integration mechanisms and the perceived degree of goal integration.

samples. An examination of the correlation coefficients of the variables reveals that the proposed ordering of the mechanisms in their relationship to goal integration was not supported by the data.

From the point of view of the organization, considering each model separately, both samples seemed to indicate that, socialization mechanisms have a higher positive relationship to goal integration than the other mechanisms. Approximately 38 (banks) and 48 (organizations) per cent of the variation in goal integration was linked to the variation in the use of socialization mechanisms. Regarding the other models, in banks, a significant negative relationship was observed ($r = - 0.56$, $p < 0.001$) between the level of goal integration and accommodation mechanisms, while a significant positive relationship was registered for the exchange model. ($r = 0.43$, $p < 0.05$). In organizations, the exchange ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.05$) and accommodation ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.05$) models showed significant but mild relationships to goal integration. Thus, considering the relationship between each model and goal integration in isolation, the results of this analysis suggest that, from the organization perspective, socialization mechanisms seem to explain a higher proportion of the variation in goal integration than exchange or accommodation mechanisms.

However, assuming that in reality the integration between individual and organizational interests is achieved through the simultaneous application of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms, as conceived in the theoretical model guiding this research (Figure 1.1), a standard multiple regression analysis was performed on the data in an attempt to provide further insights into the relationship between the dependent (The degree of goal integration) and the independent variables (The three integration models).

The results of the multiple regression analysis performed on the data of both samples are summarized in table 5.14. An analysis of the results shown in table 5.14 indicates that, in the bank sample (BANC), the explanatory power of the exchange (67%) and socialization (32%) models accounted for most of the variation in the perceived level of goal integration. In the organization sample (ORGC), however, the socialization model explained most of the variation in goal integration (75%), followed by the accommodation (10%) and the exchange (7%) models.

Thus, as perceived from the point of view of the organizations, the relationship between the three models and the level of goal integration is not consistent over the two samples. In the bank sample,

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F
REGRESSION	3.	14.63163	11.54188	*
RESIDUAL	31.	0.00000	0.00000	

***** M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N

DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. SUMARIO

SUMMARY TABLE

VARIABLE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	RSQ CHANGE	F
MAP	0.56844	0.32313	0.32313	*
MEP	0.90938	0.90874	0.67563	*
MSP	1.00000	1.00000	0.00124	*

SUBFILE ORGC

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F
REGRESSION	3.	24.94746	8.31582	208.03037
RESIDUAL	45.	1.73883	0.03997	p < 0.01

***** M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N

DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. SUMARIO

SUMMARY TABLE

VARIABLE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	RSQ CHANGE	F
MAP	0.32528	0.10581	0.10581	302.486
MEP	0.42082	0.17709	0.07128	95.586
MSP	0.94579	0.93274	0.75545	505.601

Table 5.14 Multiple Regression Analysis between
organizational measures of the use of
integration mechanisms and the
perceived degree of goal integration.

most of the variation of goal integration was attributed to the use of exchange mechanisms, while in the organization sample, it was linked to the use of socialization mechanisms.

Although a considerable proportion of the variation in goal integration can be linked to variation in the use of the three models, it seems important to emphasize that this does not imply a casual relationship among the variables. The statistical methods used here, bivariate and multiple regression analysis, can only indicate associations between the variables. The question of causality between the dependent and independent variables seems, to depend, among other things, on the quality of the theoretical framework being used and the researcher's interpretation of the findings.

In very general terms, the results from the bank and organization samples reveal the following:

1. In the bank sample, the notion of goal integration was predominantly associated with the use of exchange mechanisms. This suggests clearly that the bank sample perceived the individuals' involvement with the organization in terms of costs-benefits considerations, as conceptualized by the

exchange model. (Simon and March, 1958; Becker, 1960; Sheldon, 1971; Hrebniack and Alluto, 1972).

2. The data from the organization sample, however, linked the concept of goal integration to the use of socialization mechanisms. Thus, the notion of overlap between individuals and organizational interests was seen primarily as a resultant of the socialization process, whereby individuals are expected to become involved with the organization through induced behaviour. (Grusky, 1966 ; Schein, 1968 ; Buchanan, 1974)

5.10 INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES

The models of exchange, socialization and accommodation analyzed so far represent organizational approaches for dealing with the presumed overlap between individual and organizational interests, or what has been conceptualized as goal integration. However, assuming that organizational life can be seen as a political arena in which individuals apply a variety of strategies, manoeuvres and processes for achieving their objectives and interests (Allison, 1971; Mangham, 1978, 1979, 1982), we can not conceive that only those individuals in the coalition in power would play active roles in promoting their interests. As Mangham has suggested,

"Executives, managers, experts and supervisors use their various sources of power to influence the nature of negotiated order but the traffic is not one way, nor is it restricted to subordinates accommodating or responding to initiatives from above" (Mangham, 1979:86).

It has been interesting to note that some individuals also develop a series of active behaviours for dealing with the overlap between personal and

organizational interests. The following comments seem to illustrate the variety of strategems employed by individuals for influencing the organization to meet their personal objectives and interests.

"Generally I get what I want from this bank by educating myself further on the business of banking, by taking an interest in my job as well as by helping others in their respective jobs, and most important of all, by being prepared to work overtime without receiving any remuneration".

"By lobbying the right persons and by being patient".

"I informally discuss the problems and decisions with my colleagues, and then we act jointly".

"By working conscientiously, getting to know as many colleagues as possible and exchanging views".

"Unless we fight, it is difficult to change any "old routine". New ways are met very warily".

"The only way I find to increase my participation in decision making is by confronting the boss".

"...If I want things changed here I act through the normal Union machinery".

On the other hand, the interviews also revealed that some individuals felt unable to devise means of influencing the organization to adapt to their interests and objectives (Argyris, 1964; Merton, 1936). Some relevant comments were:

"I don't see any chances of changing things... This is a bureaucratic organization run from 5.500 miles away..."

"Organizational policies and procedures are made at the head office and must be adhered to... Most of the times we are not taken into consideration, so we have no influence on such things".

"We don't think we can do much in here about ways of influencing the organization... The persons responsible for salaries, procedures and company policies, live in Brazil and are usually unaware of the "real" conditions in

the U.K.... These matters are entirely out of our hands."

Thus, it appears that some individuals do attempt to mould the organization to suit their own goals and interests. At the same time, a few other employees seemed to be overcome by the perceived barriers of the context. Generally, the results seemed to suggest that both the individuals and the organization try to exert influence on each other, employing a variety of perceptible and imperceptible mechanisms, strategems and manoeuvres. For instance, one of our interviewees adopted the "working-for-nothing" strategy for attaining his goals. This seems to be a clear example of a camouflaged tactic for influencing the organization, or what, perhaps could be termed a calculated "investment" in his career. Other individuals preferred political approaches such as lobbying the "right" persons, by instigating collective actions, by acting through the normal Union machinery or simply, in the Marxist tradition, by confronting the boss.

Thus, in general terms these findings seem to support the notion that individuals are not passive agents of the organization, on the contrary, they sometimes adopt a wide range of their own strategies

envisaging the attainment of their goals, objectives, and interests (Bakke, 1953; Schein, 1968, 1971; Cogswell, 1968; Porter et al., 1975; Feldman, 1980; Mangham 1978, 1979, 1982).

6. CONCLUSION

6. CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This research was conducted in an attempt to gain some insights into the problem of integrating individual and organizational interests. In order to approach this problem, this study focussed on various strategies employed by the organization envisaging some degree of integration between their interests and those of the individuals. Specifically, the objectives of this study were the following:

1. To compare individual and organizational perceptions of goal integration strategies utilized by the organization for increasing the possibilities of overlap between individual and organizational interests.
2. To investigate, from both the individual and the organizational perspective, which particular strategy, or set of strategies, if any, is associated with a higher degree of goal integration.

In order to deal with these objectives, a theoretical model of goal integration was adopted from

a study developed by Barret (1977), from the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan. The theoretical model shown in figures 1.1, 1.2, 1.3 and 1.4 suggests that, in an effort to reconcile their interests with those of the individuals within them, organizations use essentially three approaches, conceptualized as the exchange, socialization and accommodation models. The original test of the model, by Barret, was restricted to the individual level of analysis and one time dimension. In this study, an attempt was made to apply the model utilizing two levels of analysis and two time dimensions. Thus, we assessed the present and ideal perceptions of the use of the three goal integration models, from both the individual and the organizational perspectives.

6.2 MAJOR CONCLUSIONS

HYPOTHESES No. 1 and 2

Regarding the extent of perceived deprivation in the use of the three goal integration models, both the individuals and organizations, from both samples, perceived the smallest discrepancy in the use of exchange mechanisms (Figures 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4). These findings seem to suggest that individuals,

including those from the coalition in power, were relatively satisfied with the current use of monetary rewards, fringe benefits, job security and other mechanisms associated with the exchange model. The level of pay was particularly emphasized, by the majority of individuals, as being higher than the market average. As Goldthorpe and associates (1968) have suggested, this satisfaction with the extrinsic aspects of work does not necessarily imply that individuals were attached or integrated with the organization. It might simply be an indication that individuals held an instrumental view of work. In other words, they might have been predominantly concerned with the monetary rewards of their relationship with the organization in order to fulfill particular goals outside the work environment, such as a continued improvement in their standards of living, the satisfaction of personal interests etc. Thus, these findings support the notion that money per se has no utility other than the subjective exchange-value attached to it by the individuals, and that some employees consider work as an instrument for achieving their goals outside the organization (Vroom; 1964; Opsahl and Dunnette, 1966; Gellerman, 1968; Rose, 1978)

In relation to the socialization model, from the individual level of analysis, respondents from both

samples perceived a relatively small discrepancy between the present and ideal conditions of the use of socialization mechanisms (Figures 5.1 and 5.2). Considering that the organizations analyzed in this study were small branches of larger organizations, and that some of them classified the work force as a "close small family", the spirit of co-operation and informality which generally predominates in small groups might have facilitated the induction and training programmes and led the individuals to adopt certain behaviour patterns which were perceived to be satisfactory to their organizational environments.

On the other hand, from the point of view of the organization, (Figures 5.3 and 5.4) both samples indicated that there was some deficiency in the use of socialization mechanisms, particularly in banks. Perhaps, the desire for further enhancement of socialization mechanisms, as evidenced by the highest extent of perceived deprivation in both banks and organizations was influenced by two factors. First, assuming that the process of inducing individuals to adopt the values, attitudes and behaviours required for their organizational roles is a continuous dynamic activity (Schein, 1968, 1971; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Caplow, 1964), there is always a need for socialization efforts. Second, assuming that individuals from the

same cultural background tend to have some common sets of values (although they probably differ in their interpretation of events) (Kelly, 1955), and considering that the vast majority of employees, from both samples, differed from the nationality of their employers, and that the value system of the individuals plays a critical role during the process of socialization (Kelman, 1958, 1961), this helps to explain part of the perceived difficulties that Brazilian organizations reported in the use of the socialization model.

As regards the accommodation model, from the individual perspective, respondents from both samples seemed to indicate a clear demand for mechanisms associated with this model, while employers, from both samples, suggested the opposite. Although individuals emphasized a desire for the implementation of accommodation mechanisms, the interviews with both the employees and executives in question revealed that, in view of the limitations imposed by the relatively small size of the organizations and the rigidity of the existing routines, both sides seemed to agree that this was somewhat difficult to achieve.

In fact, in the organizations analyzed most work procedures were found to be closely prescribed by the central offices in Brazil, with little margins for

adaptation to the local conditions. In banks, particularly, these characteristics were more accentuated, with the implicit assumptions of correctness, predictability and rationality, typical of role-oriented organizations (Harrison, 1972).

HYPOTHESES No. 3 AND 4

Concerning the current use of the three models, in banks, rather than other organizations, the perceptions of the employees were relatively similar to those of their employers. Perhaps, the most probable explanation for the relative compatibility of perceptions, in banks, would be Argyris (1954a, 1958) and Hall's (1970) conception that some "right type" of individuals are likely to identify more strongly with a particular kind of organization than another. This lends support to the idea that bank organizations are populated by a group of individuals whose personality characteristics tend to conform with a set of predispositions, such as a strong desire for security, job stability, predictability in their lives, solitude, passivity, or what Argyris (1954a, 1958) labelled the "right type" of personality. Obviously, this does not imply that there exists no individual differences in

the personality traits of bank employees, but simply that the range of personalities that the bank culture tends to accept appears to be narrower than that in other types of organizations.

At the macro level, the branches of Brazilian banks analyzed were found to be operating in an environment characterized by Government controls, and a rigid regulatory framework enacted by The Bank of England. Perhaps this rigid external regulatory framework reflects in the way of doing things at the micro level, creating an organization which strives to be rational, emphasizing programmed procedures, carefully planned system of work, and above all, the image of a quiet, passive and predictable work force. Thus, "the kind of people who gravitate in a bank and remain there are likely to have personalities which are compatible with the demands of the organization, and to that extent tend to be similar". (Argyris, 1954a:68). Therefore, the relative compatibility of perceptions found in bank organizations can be interpreted in terms of this apparent homogeneity of personalities which tend to coalesce in banks.

The results from the organization sample, however, were completely different from the homogeneity of perceptions found in the bank sample. The findings showed that there were significant differences between

the individual and organizational perceptions of the current use of the exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms. These results seem to be more aligned with the reality of organizational life, where individuals, with their own system of values and conception of organizational goals, have often conflicting interests about what is to be done, how, when, and for what purpose. If we describe organizational reality this way, the name of the game is not an "exercise in rationality", but the "struggle of interests" that is politics. Therefore, the major issues considered in this perspective of organizations are no longer a clearly defined set of organizational goals, the harmony of interests envisaged by the classical theorists or even the healthy organization idealized by the human relations writers. A combination of the ideas of the proponents of this emerging view of organizations suggests that an organization can be seen as groups, coalitions and subcoalitions of individuals, such as employees, managers, stockholders, suppliers, customers, etc., (Cyert and March, 1963), in a mixture of conflicting interests and unequal power, ignoring rationality and playing political games (Allison, 1971) where each individual acts to achieve his own set of goals and objectives, in association or at the expense of others

(Mangham, 1979, 1982). In other words, personal interests of each individual are seen as transcending the notion of a clearly defined set of organizational goals established by consensus by the rational "organization", as if it were an entity per se. The micropolitical view of organization sees the goals of the organization as "nothing more nor less than the goals of the dominant group or coalition which happens, temporarily, to be the group which can impose or can persuade others to go along with its views of what is to prevail". (Mangham, 1978b:20).

Using this perspective, the relationship between the individual and the group in power may be seen not simply as the product of contractual agreements, the organization's norms and procedures, not rational events, but as a resultant of a continuous political bargaining process, in which temporary working agreements are negotiated among the parties. These working agreements are generated through interlocked cycles of behaviour (Weick, 1969), and are constantly redefined according to the succession of events, and the interpretation attributed to them by the participants (Kelly, 1955). They are dependent, among other things, upon what Machiavelli called "virtu", namely the necessary combination of intellect, ability and power of the individuals to influence the

situation in question.

Therefore, the results from the organization sample, rather than those obtained from the bank sample seem to be more compatible with the view of organizations, which departures from the assumption of rationality at the organizational level and sees the organization as the outcome of joint involvement of individuals with different values, interests, goals and sharing unequal power. The micropolitical conception of organizational life helps to explain why an identity of interests and perceptions is difficult to achieve.

HYPOTHESES No. 5 AND 6

As regards the way in which the exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms relate to each other, the results of this study revealed the following major points: First, in spite of differences in the strength and direction of the association, the data from the individual perspective (both samples) and from the organizational perspective (other organizations sample) showed a relatively similar pattern of relationships to that found by Barret (1977). In other words, the relationship between the accommodation and socialization mechanisms was stronger

than that for the exchange and socialization mechanisms, which in turn was found to be stronger than the exchange-accommodation relationship. Bank executives, however, perceived a different pattern of relationships for the three pairs of variables and reported a negative relationship between the socialization and accommodation models, suggesting that these two models are perceived as alternatives for one another. Second, Barret's hypothesis concerning a negative relationship between the exchange and accommodation mechanisms was not supported by the data from this study. This suggests that although these mechanisms were conceptualized as representatives of different schools of thought, in practice they appear to be applied concurrently. Thus, organizational practices usually associated with the classical school of thought (Exchange mechanisms) seemed to be used simultaneously with approaches normally connected with the human relations school (Accommodation mechanisms).

Although we can analytically distinguish the mechanisms associated with the most important schools of organization theory, the findings of this study indicate that, though conceptually incompatible, in practice, these mechanisms can be used together. Since people probably work for a diversity of interests, such as money, occupational status, prestige, challenging

work, political influence, mere subsistence, self-actualization, etc., it seems perfectly normal that there would be a variety of means of binding the individual to the organization, involving a wide spectrum of mechanisms. As Sirota has suggested, some individuals "would like to finish a day's work and feel that they had accomplished something and still get paid for it" (Sirota, 1974, cited in Fein, 1974:86). Thus, these findings are considered to be an interesting departure from Barret's original results showing certain incompatibility between the exchange and accommodation mechanisms.

HYPOTHESES No. 7 and 8

Concerning the relationship between the three models and the perceived degree of goal integration achieved in the organization, generally speaking, the results of this study do not confirm Barret's view of the matter. He found that exchange mechanisms were less effective in generating goal integration than socialization or accommodation mechanisms. The accommodation mechanisms, particularly, showed the highest relationship to goal integration. The results

from this study, however, indicated that individuals perceived the use of exchange, rather than accommodation mechanisms, linked with the degree of goal integration achieved in both banks and other organizations, suggesting, perhaps, an instrumental orientation to employment. From the organizational perspective, however, socialization mechanisms were linked to the notion of goal integration, indicating, perhaps, a belief by executives that the preferred way to bring individuals in line with the organization was through induced behaviour.

Implicit in their view is the assumption that by inducing individuals to adopt the organization desired behaviours, eventually they will be committed to the organization's goals, values, etc. In addition, from the organization point of view, there are some suggestions that socialization mechanisms might be used to reduce the need for bureaucratic surveillance over the employees' behaviour, (Kelman, 1958, 1961), and that there is a possible association between the use of socialization mechanisms and high economic performance for the organization (Ouchi, 1980, cited in Pfeffer, 1982). Executives from banks and organizations not only perceived an association between the use of socialization mechanisms and the degree of goal integration, but also indicated that there was a need

for further application of these mechanisms. Their views seemed to be based on the notion that most of what occurs in the behaviour of people happens as a result of forces residing outside the person and therefore, by utilizing a socialization approach it might be possible to make individuals committed to the organization. The perceptions of the executives seem to support Argyris' (1964) notion that commitment is one of the best ways of reaching a congruency between individual and organizational interests and consequently, integrating the employees into the organization.

When the simultaneous affects of the three models were compared with the perceived level of goal integration, the results from the individual (both samples) and bank perspectives revealed that exchange mechanisms were considered as more effective in promoting increased levels of integration, while those from the executives of other organizations indicated socialization mechanisms. Since monetary incentives usually predominate in the exchange model, to some extent, these findings seem to provide support to Vroom's (1964:30) contention that "one indisputable source of the desire of people to work is the money they are paid for working". Nevertheless, he disagrees with the monolithic conception of economic man and

suggests that "for a large proportion of individuals the decision to seek work or to continue work is based partly on anticipated rewards obtained from work that have nothing to do with money or the uses to which money may be put". (Vroom, 1964:32).

It appears that, this predominant acceptance of the exchange framework, by individuals and bank executives, was influenced by a combination of the following moderating variables:

1. The ideology of the organization. Banks and some commercial organizations exhibited a considerable degree of role orientation, aspiring to develop a rational, programmed and orderly system of work (Argyris, 1954a, 1958; Harrison, 1972).
2. The lack of alternatives. In times of relatively unfavourable economic climate, particularly in the labour market, the chances of shopping around for other jobs are obviously reduced. (Goldthorpe, 1968; Rose, 1978). Another reason for remaining in the jobs, perhaps, was the above the average salary paid by the organizations analyzed.
3. The limited opportunities for personal

growth. According to the executives interviewed, as small branches of Brazilian organizations in the U.K., their prospects for expansion were somewhat limited, which consequently reduced the individual opportunities to pursue goals such as personal growth, development, etc. At the same time, we can not assume that all individuals were concerned with these matters. (Fox, 1971).

There seems to be no evidence to support the notion that all individuals in the work environment seek the integration of their interests with those of the organization. Although the majority of employees, from both samples, appeared to suggest that there is a demand for an increased involvement in decision-making, more control over their jobs and more information about organizational affairs, some individuals seemed simply not to be interested in these matters. This does not necessarily imply that they were dissatisfied with the organization or that they were seeking to fulfill goals which could not be accomplished through their present organization. These employees seemed to be mostly interested in the exchange framework rather than attempting any additional involvement in organizational affairs. The relative lack of interest in goal

integration by some employees appears to illustrate Heath's (1977) view that if an individual prefers "to minimax rather than maximize his expected utility, that is his own business". This seems to highlight the importance of individual differences in analyzing human behaviour and, at the same time, questions the existence of rational actors in organizational contexts.

Throughout this study, some differences were observed between the bank and organizational samples. This study, however, did not originally intend to test whether there would be differences between these two samples. We have chosen to include two samples in an attempt to increase the reliability of the results. Nevertheless, on a purely speculative plane, we can attribute some differences between the two samples in terms of the following variables:

1. The degree of formalization of behaviour. The interviews with bank employees and executives revealed that, in an attempt to reduce uncertainty and create what Hickson (1966-1967:235) calls a "bureaucratic-mechanistic-closely-formalized-routinized-specific-dominant-well-defined-

programmed-perceptually structured-habit-
'scientific'-authoritative-rational"

organization, in banks, there is a constant preoccupation to regulate every possible aspect of the employees' behaviour. Although, the other organizations analyzed showed some degree of formalization in their behaviours, the indications were clearly less apparent than those found in banks.

2. The type of employee. Presumably in order to maintain the notion of a rational, orderly and predictable organization, banks advocate the utilization of the "right-type" personalities in the conduct of their affairs. Thus, by employing individuals who tend to conform to this type of employee, bank organizations probably expect not only to maintain the presumption of rationality internally but, at the same time, to offer their clients the image of stability, security and predictability. As to the other organizations, we found no indications to support the notion that they seek any particular type of employee or homogeneity in their work force.

3. The level of education of the work force. In banks, the general level of education was lower than that found in the organization sample. For instance, in organizations 36.7% of the employees had a university degree, as opposed to only 14.3% in banks. (Tables A.9 and A.10). In the literature, there are some suggestions that the higher the level of education the higher the level of aspiration of the individual. (Argyris, 1964; Blake and Mouton, 1964). Thus, the higher level of education of the organization sample might have influenced the way they perceived exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms. Perhaps, they were more aware of their interests and, consequently less manipulable by the organization.

THE EXCHANGE, SOCIALIZATION AND ACCOMMODATION MODELS

An important aspect of the theoretical models tested in this research is the conceptual distinction between the variety of strategies employed by organizations in their attempts to reconcile their interests with those of the employees. In testing the three goal integration models using data from ten

subsidiaries of Brazilian organizations operating in London, and in reviewing the existing literature related to the concepts of exchange, socialization and accommodation, we reached the conclusion that, although the three models suffer from two major shortcomings, nevertheless, they represent a logically coherent and useful conceptual scheme for analyzing the overlapping between individual and organizational interests.

Underlying the exchange, socialization and accommodation models are the following assumptions:

a) THE EXCHANGE MODEL. The exchange strategy utilized by organizations is largely associated with the ideas proposed by the classical and neoclassical schools of organization (Taylor, 1911; Weber 1947; March and Simon, 1958) and notions of the social exchange theorists (Homans, 1950, 1958, 1961; Blau 1964; Thibaut and Kelly, 1959). The review of the literature has shown that these schools of thought advocate, implicitly or explicitly, the concept of exchange as a mechanism for obtaining the individuals' involvement with work activities. For instance, proponents of the exchange approach, such as March and Simon

(1958), view the individuals' employment relationship as a rational form of attachment. The individual is seen as exchanging his time, energy, knowledge, etc., for monetary rewards, security, etc. In general, the exchange model assumes that the individuals can evaluate their work relationship with the organization in terms of costs-benefits considerations and that they will remain in the organization as long as there is at least a balance between what they perceive to be their "rewards" and "costs" (Homans, 1950, Adams, 1965). Although a variety of social and economic incentives are encompassed by the exchange model, most theorists generally agree that monetary rewards play a critical role in the employment relationship, and seem to imply that individuals are able to evaluate their involvement with the organization in terms of a rational, purposive, calculative choice.

b) THE SOCIALIZATION MODEL. The concept of socialization, derived from social learning theory, assumes that behaviour is a function of the individual's cognitive processes.

Applied to the organizational context, the socialization concept implies that, once the employee learns the system of values, goals and behaviour patterns desired by the organization, through a cognitively based source of motivation, he might adopt those values, behaviours and goals as their own. Thus, under the socialization model the organization applies a variety of influence processes and modelling behaviour in an attempt to mould the individuals' values attitudes and behaviours according to what is considered necessary for their roles in the work place. Therefore, the socialization model is based on the assumption that individuals are adaptive to the organization environment and that personal relationships with peers and supervisors play a fundamental role in influencing the employees' behaviour at work. In this sense, the socialization model is compatible with the ideas of the human relations school of thought. In general, the concept of socialization in organizational settings as a strategy for influencing the employees in adopting the organization goals and induced behaviour is

well recognized in the literature. (Brim and Wheeler, 1966; Schein, 1961, 1965, 1968, 1971, Katz and Kahn, 1966, Caplow, 1964; Kelman, 1958, 1951; Mangham, 1979).

c) THE ACCOMMODATION MODEL. The notion of accommodation as defined in this study seems to be based on Adam Smith's (1840) principle of the "invisible hand", operating in the economy for the benefit of society. In other words, if individuals are allowed to pursue their self-interests, they will be led by an "invisible hand" to promote the interests of the society more effectively than when they actually intend to promote them. By analogy, the accommodation model is based on a similar principle. The concept of accommodation suggests that if the organization accommodates itself to the needs, expectations and goals of the individuals, by allowing them to pursue their own interests, this will be intrinsically rewarding for the employees and beneficial for the organization. Presumably this would create what (Argyris (1964) calls "the possibilities for psychological success" for the

individuals and "organizational success" for the enterprise. Thus, the accommodation model is largely based on the assumption that the goals, needs and interests of the individuals can be attained for the mutual benefit of the parties. The review of the literature has suggested that the idea of utilizing accommodation mechanisms for integrating individual and organizational interests is derived from the writings of the human relations school. Although the concept of "accommodation" is new in organization theory, the literature abounds in examples of accommodation mechanisms, i.e., satisfying the individuals' needs and interests at work (Argyris, 1964, Sayles and Strauss, 1960), creating a democratic and participative form of organization (Katz and Kahn, 1966; Likert, 1967; Argyris 1964; Bate and Mangham, 1981; McGregor, 1957), giving the employees financial participation and/or sharing of ownership (OECD, 1975; Chavanes 1975), etc.

What the exchange, socialization and accommodation models have in common is the assumption of rationality. The concept of rationality is

essentially an extension of the objective reality of the British empiricists, such as John Locke, and the ideas emanated from the classical economic theory. Broadly speaking, Locke believed that at birth, the human mind is essentially a "tabula rasa" upon which sensory data etch themselves, and that human knowledge results from the combination of these sensory impressions and subsequent sensations acquired through experience. For Locke, every individual had certain universal behavioural characteristics such as, the ability to rationalize and the capacity to know self-interest. In the end of the seventeenth century, in his "Essay on Human Understanding", Locke (1952) expanded the ideas of hedonism of the Greek philosophers, particularly those of the school of Aristippus, suggesting that desire is the spring of human action, and that the objective of man is to pursue his own happiness by substituting pleasure for pain. These motivational assumptions of man were incorporated into the concept of 'homo economicus' by the classical economic theorists, and subsequently transplanted to most organization theories. Basically, the behaviour of economic man is presumed to be rational in the sense that is goal-oriented behaviour (Pfeffer, 1982), since he is seen as "eager to substitute a more satisfactory state of affairs for a

less satisfactory. His mind imagines conditions which suit him better, and his actions aim at bringing about this desired state", (Mises, 1949:13). When given a chance to take a decision, the rational individual is assumed to choose among alternative courses of action which are known and, according to his personal ranking of priorities, he will choose the option for which his expected value is greatest. However, in view of man's cognitive limits on information processing, among other things, March and Simon (1958) rejected the idea of rational behaviour and suggested a model of satisficing choice. Essentially they suggested that the problem of choice among various alternatives becomes simplified if we replace the goal of maximizing by the goal of satisficing. In general, they proposed that individuals are not objectively rational as prescribed by classical economic theory, but intendedly or subjectively rational.

At the individual level of analysis, by assuming that individuals are trying to maximize their utilities in the exchange relationship with the organization, by assuming that employees who are being socialized are pursuing their personal goals and, by assuming that when the organization accommodates itself to the needs, desires and goals of the individuals it is providing them an opportunity to exercise their

self-interest, all these three models proceed from the premise that the organization is comprised of goal-oriented individuals who evaluate their decisions rationally. At the organizational level of analysis, the presumption that the organization is purposive and acts intentionally as a system of interdependent parts to achieve some predefined organizational goals, also involves the assumption of rationality. These assumptions constitute the first main shortcoming of the three integration models.

The assumption of individual rationality has predominated in most disciplines of the social sciences, including the field of organizational behaviour (Pfeffer, 1982). At the same time, there have been innumerable attacks on the strict rational model, suggesting that it is unsatisfactory for explaining human behaviour and choice. (Simon, 1955; 1957, 1960, 1978; March and Simon, 1958; Allison, 1971; Pfeffer, 1982). However, as Connant (1947) has suggested, contradictory evidence, by itself, is not sufficient reason for the total rejection of a paradigm. He argued that, besides the contradictory evidence a new theory needs to be formulated before the abandonment of a specific line of thought. Therefore, although the principle of rationality is unsatisfactory for explaining man's actions, in view of the lack of an

alternative model of man, we can not underestimate, for instance, the utility of the assumption of self-interest in the analysis of human behaviour. As Kuhn (1962) has indicated, "no paradigm that provides a basis for scientific research ever completely resolves all its problems".

The second major deficiency of the three models is their neglect for the micropolitics of the organizational life. They ignore, for instance, that the attempt of each individual to realize his interests and what he considers to be the organizational goals inevitably leads to conflicts of interests and disputes among the participants. And usually what happens when opinions do not coincide is not a rational solution chosen for the problem, but bargaining games and compromise, where the key variables are the power and political skills of each individual, mediated by the strategies and tactics employed. (Allison, 1971).

The exchange and accommodation models represent, essentially, opposite ends of a continuum of goal integration strategies. The exchange model is rooted in economic considerations, in the tradition of classical economic and organizational theories, while the accommodation model is based on democratic or participative practices associated with the human relations school of thought. While the motivational

assumptions of the exchange model are based on extrinsic rewards, the accommodation model relies on intrinsic considerations. Between the two extremes of the continuum, the socialization model coexists with the exchange and/or accommodation models. For whatever model or combination of models being used by the organization the socialization process seems to be an important element affecting the individuals' responses to the organization. In general terms we tend to agree with Katzell's (1962:103) view that we have "no one conception or strategy of work organization that is unequivocally or universally superior to others, in terms of the results achieved". By this we mean that, although, at certain times, one model may predominate in a particular organizational context, this does not preclude the use of the others in promoting goal integration. In view of the dynamics of organizational life, the prevailing goal integration strategies appear to be a product of a continuous struggle of interests between individuals, groups and coalitions which comprise the organization.

In ancient Greece, sometimes the tragedicians used a theatrical technique known as the "deus ex machina", in order to conclude a difficult plot. This technique, first used by Greek playwrights, basically

meant finding an external means, or an easy way out, to solve the problems of the characters, such as the unexpected death of a rival near the end of the play. In this research, although we were unable to find a "deus ex machina" solution to resolve the problem of integrating individual and organizational interests, the findings of this study led us to conclude that:

a) It is dangerous to assume that the organization is a puritan city, inhabited by faithful, obidient, virtuous, truthful, loving individuals, as idealized by most views of organizations. On the contrary, the results of this study have suggested that a more realistic picture of organizational life can be obtained if we conceive it in terms of an arena of gladiators, where 'fide et amore' are substituted for the Machiavellian notions of 'virtu et arms'. In other words, the organizational life may be conceived as an on-going struggle of interests between individuals with different conceptions of themselves, the organization, and the world, trying to accomplish their interests by every possible means at their disposal, including bargaining, persuasion, compromise, bluff,

threat and, perhaps most important of all, power.

b) If goal integration is a necessary concept for the organizational life, it can be conceived as the resultant action of both the individual and the organizational strategies for achieving their own interests, rather than an unilateral choice by the dominant coalition.

c) There exists no single model of goal integration capable of promoting the overlap between individual and organizational interests. In view of the dynamics of the organizational life, and the heterogeneous nature of its participants, what can be conceived is a variety of strategies being applied according to the circumstances.

6.3 LIMITATIONS

The initial problem faced by the researcher was the lack of previous studies dealing with the question of integrating both individual and organizational interests. In spite of the presumed importance of the topic there have been relatively few theoretical and empirical studies dealing with it directly. In general, most studies have dealt with the problem emphasizing either the organizational or individual aspects of the matter, such as those concerned with organizational effectiveness and those focussed upon conditions leading to individual satisfaction at work.

One of the greatest difficulties in trying to understand organizational behaviour arises from the fact that the subject-matter is in a constant process of change. The individuals, groups and coalitions which comprise the organization seem to be constantly redefining their relationships with each other, through a continuous struggle of interests. Therefore, in analyzing a static picture of the organizational arena at a specific point in time, the researcher is likely to obtain only limited knowledge of the complexity and richness of organizational life.

Another limitation of this study concerns the

methods utilized for gathering information on the problem under investigation. Owing to the limited availability of research resources, time and access to the organizations, this investigation relied on information collected through the application of questionnaires and personal interviews, rather than observational techniques. Nevertheless, we realize that in studying human behaviour, although questionnaires and open discussions may provide illuminating details and insights, generally, they are not satisfactory substitutes for the close observation of the way in which individuals behave in organizational settings.

Finally, a general limitation of this study derives from the utilization of models as tools of investigation. In view of the complexity of social reality, researchers often resort to the utilization of models in their attempts to analyze social phenomena. However, in working with models it seems important to recognize that, by definition, a model represents essentially a limited analogy with the phenomenon being investigated. Since the general purpose of using models is to facilitate our understanding of reality, only the essential features and variables of the phenomenon under consideration is represented in a model. In this sense, a model can be conceived as a

compromise between an oversimplification and a full description of reality. In other words, a model is intended to be a simplified picture of what things are rather than a perfect analogy of them. Thus, the usefulness of a model seems to depend, among other things, on the extent to which the critical features of the phenomena are represented, and the extent to which some of the relatively unimportant variables can be neglected for practical reasons.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTITIONERS

The findings of this study have special significance to managers, consultants and administrators in general. For instance, this study has demonstrated that organizations apply a variety of strategies and mechanisms in an attempt to integrate their interests with those of their employees, or simply to achieve a minimum degree of co-operation required for the development of the organizational activities. At the same time, there were some indications that some individuals are not passive agents in the organization and also apply a variety of strategies, processes and mechanisms for promoting their own interests. Among these, we have identified some subtle strategies which could be considered of a "political" nature, such as "exchanging views with colleagues", "lobbying the right persons", "confronting the boss", etc. Therefore, one factor managers, consultants and policy makers should be aware of is that the degree of goal integration achieved in the organization seems to be not simply the result of the strategies designed by the coalition in power, but the outcome of a political bargaining process in which individual employees, groups and coalitions apply a variety of strategems, processes, and tactics in order

to accomplish their interests.

Another significant implication of this study is that, from the point of view of the organization, there seems to be no universal or unconditional goal integration model. The question of what kind of model or combination of models is more satisfactory for increasing the possibilities of overlap between individual and organizational interests, seems to be contingent upon situational factors such as, the motivational basis of the individuals, the nature, ideology, size and financial position of the organization, the state of the national economy, particularly that of the labour market, etc. Therefore it is practically impossible to prescribe with certainty what particular model or models would suit organizations in general. The use of a particular model or models will probably differ from organization to organization, from country to country, and from time to time, according to the actions and reactions of the individuals in question, their interests and bargaining power, and the way in which they view and interpret events in the context.

6.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCHERS

In the past, there have been relatively few systematic research into the problem of integrating individual and organizational interests. Until recently, most studies have been concerned with the theoretical issues of the matter, and conducted either from an organizational or individual perspective. Barret's (1977) study of integration mechanisms, for the Institute of Social Research of the University of Michigan, was the first comprehensive attempt to investigate, theoretically and empirically, institutional mechanisms for integrating individual and organizational interests. Nevertheless, his study was limited to analyzing the matter from the individual's point of view.

In this study, we decided to expand Barret's approach, by testing his model at the individual and organizational levels of analysis, and by comparing individual and organizational perceptions of integration mechanisms and the degree of goal integration achieved in the organization. Since this study is the second in this area, we have dealt with some ideas, concepts and relationships not previously reported in the literature. Therefore, it is essential

that further investigation be undertaken in order to refine the model and to validate and generalize the conclusions researched here.

Before discussing the substantive part of the implications, it seems important to consider two methodological issues.

First, in the behavioural sciences in general, there has been a notable tendency, by scientists, to provide motivational, rather than functional explanations about the behaviour of man, ignoring, sometimes, the role of unanticipated and unintended consequences of some human actions. (Kaplan, 1973). For instance, at the individual level of analysis, when a person acts in a certain manner, it is not uncommon for the analyst to justify the action in terms of human needs, motives, etc. Thus, in the utilitarian tradition, "needs", "motives", "missions" are, sometimes, created by the analyst in order to provide a purpose, or a justification, to human actions at the individual, organizational or social levels of analysis. Considering our limited knowledge about fundamental questions regarding the nature of man, such as the general lack of agreement among social scientists over the extent to which human behaviour is influenced by external forces or chosen internally (Pfeffer, 1982), and in view of Kelly's (1955)

rejection of the psychological concept of motivation, extreme care must be taken, by researchers, in providing purposeful explanations.

The second methodological issue concerns the temporal scope of the studies. Assuming that an organization is similar to a living organism which is constantly transforming itself as a result of the action of its components, in order to gain better insights into the dynamics of organizational life, there is a need for longitudinal studies.

The main implication of the findings of the present study for organization behaviour researchers is that, although the models utilized in this research were found to be logically coherent, and useful instruments of exploration, they suffer from two major shortcomings which seem to be remediable:

a) They involve the assumption of rationality at the individual and organizational levels of analysis.

b) They ignore the influence of political processes occurring at the organization.

Therefore, further research could fruitfully take into account these considerations and reformulate the exchange, socialization and accommodation models.

In essence, what is needed is to broaden the concepts of exchange, socialization and accommodation to acknowledge the existence of "homo politicus" in organizations, and to challenge the presumption of rationality at the organizational level of analysis. For instance, at the individual level of analysis, the assumption of self-interest in man's actions is necessary for the model. At the organizational level of analysis, however, there is a clear need to move away from the managerially-oriented assumption that the organization is a "close-small family" rationally devised to achieve predefined organizational goals (Watson, 1982). Thus, a political perspective of organizations should be adopted, conceiving them as pluraristic, divided into interests, subunits, and subcultures (Pfeffer, 1982), involving a mixture of individuals, sharing unequal power, with different backgrounds and divergent perceptions of organizational goals, making decisions "not by a single, rational choice, but by the pulling and hauling that is politics" (Allison, 1971:144). In this context, we can illustrate some of the additional mechanisms which may be conceptualized under each model:

- a) THE EXCHANGE MODEL. Besides the economic and social exchange relationships, this model

would incorporate political exchanges. For instance, each individual would be viewed as having a bargaining position vis-a-vis the coalition in power, providing a special category of his unique resources or services (Inside information on a particular subject, influence over a group of individuals, special connections with religious, political, ethnical or professional groups outside the organization, etc.), in exchange for unconventional benefits supplied by the organization, such as certain privileges within the organization, opportunities for participating in professional conferences abroad, chances for making important contacts, the "acceleration" of his career, etc. This perspective of the exchange model differs from that utilized in this research in the sense that it deals with special arrangements between two parties which tend to be characterized as the result of political bargaining processes.

b) THE SOCIALIZATION MODEL. It should incorporate the Machiavellian principle that "the nature of people is variable, and whilst

it is easy to persuade them, it is difficult to fix them in that persuasion. And thus it is necessary to take measures that, when they believe no longer, it may be possible to make them believe by force" (Machiavelli, 1952:9). Therefore, by analogy, from the point of view of the organization, a key mechanism here would be the power to influence individuals to adopt the desired behaviours or to maintain the persuasion. Political socialization would differ from the traditional socialization mechanisms in the sense that they would mostly deal with organizational myths. For instance, some organizations may create the myth of "the organizational culture" as synonym of professional excellence, or the myth of "the open avenues for advancement" as mere mechanisms of persuasion to illude the employees and to elicit the intended behaviours. Obviously, the outcome of these political socialization games depends on the individual's reactions, his awareness of the organizational myths, his willingness and ability to accept or reject them, etc.

c) THE ACCOMMODATION MODEL. In the micropolitical dimension, the logic of the accommodation model is essentially the opposite of that of the political socialization. The fundamental premise is that the political accommodation process is not a rational solution chosen for the problem, or an act of grace of Melissa, the beneficent fairy of the Italian poets, but rather the outcome of the individual's power to persuade the organization to adopt certain values, goals or courses of action which coincide with his interests. It differs from what Schein (1968, 1971) referred to as the individual's attempts to influence the organization in the sense that the instruments considered here are power and politics, and that rather than tending to occur in the later stages of the individual's careers, this process may occur at any time. For instance, mechanisms which may be conceived under the political view of the accommodation model are the individual filtering the information received from outside and transmitting to the organization only the bits which would lead it to adopt

the elicited behaviour, persuading the organization to adopt certain "standards of conduct" which would suit his interests, creating imaginary scenarios as "alternative" courses of action, etc.

Subject to the modifications proposed above, it is essential that the exchange, socialization and accommodation models be further tested by future studies. In the light of the present study, we suggest three main courses for gaining much needed additional insights into the problem of integrating individual and organizational interests:

a) The investigation of organizational strategies. By enlarging the concepts of exchange, socialization and accommodation utilized in this study and by analyzing the matter from a political perspective, further studies could gain a better understanding of this important area of research.

b) The exploration of individual strategies. Although this study detected the existence of a variety of individual goal integration strategies, no attempt was made to categorize these strategies, to assess their

interrelationship, or to determine what the outcomes of these strategies would be. The conceptualization and the empirical examination of these strategies, however, remains the task of future research.

c) The investigation of both the individual and the organizational strategies. Ideally, it might be possible to examine the interaction of these strategies, their reciprocal effect, and the dynamics of the integration phenomenon.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE SET NO. 1 - INDIVIDUALS

INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS			01
1	SEX <input type="checkbox"/> 1 MALE <input type="checkbox"/> 2 FEMALE	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	AGE GROUP <input type="checkbox"/> 1 20 years or under <input type="checkbox"/> 2 21 - 30 years <input type="checkbox"/> 3 31 - 40 years <input type="checkbox"/> 4 41 - 50 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 51 years or more	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	MARITAL STATUS <input type="checkbox"/> 1 Never married <input type="checkbox"/> 2 Married <input type="checkbox"/> 3 Widowed <input type="checkbox"/> 4 Divorced or separated <input type="checkbox"/> 5 Other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS No <input type="checkbox"/> 1 dependent <input type="checkbox"/> 2 1 dependent <input type="checkbox"/> 3 2 dependents <input type="checkbox"/> 4 3 dependents <input type="checkbox"/> 5 4 dependents OR MORE	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (COMPLETED) <input type="checkbox"/> 1 Primary School <input type="checkbox"/> 2 '0' Level or equivalent <input type="checkbox"/> 3 'A' Level or equivalent <input type="checkbox"/> 4 University level <input type="checkbox"/> 5 Post Graduate Level	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	NATIONALITY <input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	OCCUPATION <input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	LENGTH OF TIME WORKED AT THE ORGANISATION <input type="checkbox"/> 1 Less than 1 year <input type="checkbox"/> 2 1 up to 3 years <input type="checkbox"/> 3 3 up to 6 years <input type="checkbox"/> 4 6 up to 9 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 9 or more years	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	HAVE YOU WORKED FOR ANY OTHER FIRM BEFORE ? <input type="checkbox"/> 1 YES <input type="checkbox"/> 2 NO	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	ANNUAL INCOME LEVEL <input type="checkbox"/> 1 £ 5,000 or less <input type="checkbox"/> 2 5,001-10,000 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 10,001-15,000 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 15,001-20,000 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 £ 20,001 or more	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
			<input type="checkbox"/>

For each question below, please give one rating, according to the following scale :

TO A VERY

1 ☐ LITTLE EXTENT 2 ☐ TO A LITTLE EXTENT 3 ☐ TO SOME EXTENT 4 ☐ TO A GREAT EXTENT 5 ☐ TO A VERY GREAT EXTENT

1	To what extent is the organization effective in getting you to meet its needs and contribute to its effectiveness?	1 2 3 4 5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	3 If you devoted all your effort on the job to activities which directly satisfy your own needs and interests, to what extent would you be doing things which also help the organization be successful?	1 2 3 4 5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
2	To what extent does the organization do a good job of meeting your needs and goals as an individual?	1 2 3 4 5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	4 If you devoted all your effort on the job to activities which directly help the organization be successful, to what extent would you be doing things which also satisfy your own personal needs and interests?	1 2 3 4 5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

--	--

For each question please give two ratings : a) First Row : To indicate how things are NOW, at present
TO A VERY b) Second Row : To indicate how you would like things to be, IDEALLY.

1 ☐ TO A VERY LITTLE EXTENT 2 ☐ TO A LITTLE EXTENT 3 ☐ TO SOME EXTENT 4 ☐ TO A GREAT EXTENT 5 ☐ TO A VERY GREAT EXTENT

1 To what extent does the amount of salary you receive stimulate your best efforts in the job?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 To what extent do you have chances for developing informal relationships with your colleagues at work?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 To what extent does the ORG. offer you considerate treatment and recognition?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 To what extent is there a good relationship between you and your immediate superior?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 To what extent do your superiors facilitate goal achievement by providing whatever means and resources are necessary?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	8 To what extent does the quality of working conditions and equipment at your disposal stimulate your efforts?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 To what extent does the ORG. provide you with a feeling of job security?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	9 To what extent is your individual performance stimulated by financial benefits and incentives?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 To what extent does the amount of benefits and financial incentives you receive stimulate your best efforts?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	10 To what extent is there a consistent application of personnel policies in determining promotions and salary increases?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>

For each question please give two ratings : a) First Row : To indicate how things are NOW, at present
TO A VERY
b) Second Row : To indicate how you would like things to be, IDEALLY.

1 ☐ LITTLE EXTENT 2 ☐ TO A LITTLE EXTENT 3 ☐ TO SOME EXTENT 4 ☐ TO A GREAT EXTENT 5 ☐ TO A VERY GREAT EXTENT

1 To what extent are the induction programmes for new employees clear about the values, goals, policies, and norms of the Org.?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	To what extent are you willing to change your routine in order to acquire new skills and abilities required for Org. careers?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 To what extent does the Org. inform you about its problems, successes, current policies and financial goals?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	To what extent do you receive friendly encouragement from your superiors in order to give your best efforts in the job?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 To what extent do your superiors set examples by achieving high standards of performance themselves?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	To what extent do your colleagues in different positions help each other to carry out difficult or urgent tasks?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 To what extent are you willing to change or give up practices or interests which go against the interests of the Org.?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	To what extent do your colleagues maintain high standards of performance in their tasks?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 To what extent do you feel responsible for helping the Org. to keep costs down and performance high?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	To what extent do you feel personally responsible for the Org.'s reputation with clients and friends?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>

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For each question please give two ratings : a) First Row : To indicate how things are NOW, at present
TO A VERY
b) Second Row : To indicate how you would like things to be, IDEALLY.

1 ☐ LITTLE EXTENT 2 ☐ TO A LITTLE EXTENT 3 ☐ TO SOME EXTENT 4 ☐ TO A GREAT EXTENT 5 ☐ TO A VERY GREAT EXTENT

1 To what extent are your needs and interests taken into account when roles are designed or work assigned?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 To what extent do you feel the Org.'s personnel policies are being changed to meet your needs, interests, goals and aspirations?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 To what extent are you given opportunities to participate in making decisions related to work problems and procedures?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 To what extent does the Org. provide you opportunities for discussion and participation in the setting of priorities and objectives for your department?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 To what extent is the Org. willing to provide you the means and incentives for self development and educational upgrading?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	8 To what extent is the Org. willing to change or give up work methods and objectives which are not satisfactory to your interests?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 To what extent does the Org. take into consideration the expression of your opinions, ideas and suggestions related to your work activities?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	9 To what extent do you have chances to participate in the review of salaries and promotion policies?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 To what extent are you given chances for growth and advancement in your career?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	10 To what extent does the Org. assess and respond to your personal problems, interests and aspirations related to your career?	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>

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INDIVIDUAL PROCESSES

Assuming that, to some extent the individual may influence the organisation to meet his personal interests and needs, please indicate for each item below : A - whether you feel you can exercise influence over the subject or not.

- B - if YES please state what means or processes you utilize to reach your objectives
 - if NOT, give reasons which prevent you influencing the organisation.

1 On the amount of salary increases you receive.

4 On the adjustment of organization policies which go against your interests.

2 On the amount of job security you have.

5 On the increased utilization of YOUR qualifications and potential by the organization.

3 On an increased participation in problem-solving and decision-making.

6 On your chances to learn new technical or professional skills required for your job.

1 Considering your education, training and preparation do you feel your knowledge, skills and abilities are being utilized in your present position?

2 In general, which aspects of your job you tend to like best?

3 All together, which aspects of your job you tend to dislike?

APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONNAIRE SET NO. 2 - ORGANIZATIONS

GENERAL ISSUES		II	
<p>For each question below, please give one rating, according to the following scale :</p> <p>TO A VERY 1 <input type="checkbox"/> LITTLE EXTENT 2 <input type="checkbox"/> TO A LITTLE EXTENT 3 <input type="checkbox"/> TO SOME EXTENT 4 <input type="checkbox"/> TO A GREAT EXTENT 5 <input type="checkbox"/> TO A VERY GREAT EXTENT</p>			
<p>1 To what extent is the organization effective in getting its employees to meet its needs and contribute to its effectiveness?</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p>3 If your employees devoted all effort on the job to activities which directly satisfy their own needs and interests, to what extent would they be doing things which also help the organization be successful?</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/></p>
<p>2 To what extent does the organization do a good job of meeting employees needs and goals as individuals?</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p>4 If your employees devoted all their effort on the job to activities which directly help the organization be successful, to what extent would they be doing things which also satisfy their own personal needs and interests?</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/></p>

1 To what extent is the organization effective in getting its employees to meet its needs and contribute to its effectiveness?

2 Does the organization do a good job of meeting employees needs and goals as individuals?

3 What are the organization's policies in relation to the use of exchange, socialization and accommodation mechanisms?

INTEGRATION MECHANISMS

For each question please give two ratings : a) First Row : To indicate how things are NOW, at present
 TO A VERY b) Second Row : To indicate how you would like things to be, IDEALLY.

1 ☐ LITTLE EXTENT 2 ☐ TO A LITTLE EXTENT 3 ☐ TO SOME EXTENT 4 ☐ TO A GREAT EXTENT 5 ☐ TO A VERY GREAT EXTENT

1 The extent to which the amount of salary your employees receive stimulate their efforts in the job.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 The extent to which the Org. facilitates the development of informal relationships among employees at the same level.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 The extent to which the Org. offers its employees considerate treatment and recognition.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 The extent to which there is a good relationship between superiors and subordinates.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 The extent to which the Org. facilitates goal achievement by providing whatever means and resources are necessary.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	8 The extent to which the quality of working conditions and equipment at your employees' disposal stimulate their efforts.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 The extent to which the Org. provides the employees a feeling of job security.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	9 The extent to which the Org. offers a link between individual performance and the financial reward structure.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 The extent to which the amount of benefits and financial incentives your employees receive stimulate their best efforts.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	10 The extent to which the Org. applies consistent personnel policies in determining promotions and salary increases.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>

For each question please give two ratings : a) First Row : To indicate how things are NOW, at present
TO A VERY b) Second Row : To indicate how you would like things to be, IDEALLY.

1 ☐ LITTLE EXTENT 2 ☐ TO A LITTLE EXTENT 3 ☐ TO SOME EXTENT 4 ☐ TO A GREAT EXTENT 5 ☐ TO A VERY GREAT EXTENT

1 The extent to which the induction programmes for new employees are clear about the values, goals, policies and norms of the Organisation.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 The extent to which the employees are willing to change their routine in order to acquire new skills and abilities required for Org. careers.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 The extent to which the Org. informs its employees about its failures, successes, current policies, and financial goals.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 The extent to which superiors give their subordinates friendly encouragement in order to get their best efforts in the job.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 The extent to which superiors set examples by achieving high standards of performance themselves.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	8 The extent to which there is co-operation by employees of different positions to carry out difficult or urgent tasks.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 The extent to which the employees are willing to change or give up practices which go against the interests of the Organisation.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	9 The extent to which employees maintain high standards of performance in their tasks.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 The extent to which individual employees feel a sense of responsibility for helping the Org. to keep costs down and performance high.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	10 The extent to which the employees feel personally responsible for the Org.'s reputation with clients and friends.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

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For each question please give two ratings : a) First Row : To indicate how things are NOW, at present
TO A VERY
b) Second Row : To indicate how you would like things to be, IDEALLY.

1 ☐ LITTLE EXTENT 2 ☐ TO A LITTLE EXTENT 3 ☐ TO SOME EXTENT 4 ☐ TO A GREAT EXTENT 5 ☐ TO A VERY GREAT EXTENT

1 The extent to which the employees' needs and interests are taken into consideration when roles are designed or work assigned.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 The extent to which the Org.'s personnel policies are being changed to meet employees' interests, goals and aspirations.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 The extent to which the Org. stimulates employee involvement in making decisions related to work problems and procedures.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 The extent to which the Org. stimulates employee discussion and participation in the establishment of priorities and objectives for their departments.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 The extent to which the Org. is willing to provide its employees means and incentives for self-development and educational upgrading.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	8 The extent to which the Org. is willing to change or give up work methods and objectives which are not satisfactory to the interests of the employees.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 The extent to which the Org. takes into consideration the expression of employees' opinions, ideas and suggestions related to their work activities.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	9 The extent to which employees have a chance to participate in the review of salary and promotion policies.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 The extent to which the Org. offers the employees a chance for growth and advancement in their careers.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	10 The extent to which the Org. assesses and responds to employees personal problems, interests and aspirations related to their careers.	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>

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APPENDIX 3

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

In comparing the results of this study with those of Barret's (1977) it seems important to keep in mind the major differences which exist between the general characteristics of the subjects selected for each research and the nature of the organizations involved. These are:

a) The kind of economic activity. Barret's study utilized a single sample of employees of a large oil refinery in the United States. This study employed two samples of subjects from ten small branches of Brazilian organizations operating in London. The first sample was selected from four bank organizations, while the second involved six other organizations such as one oil refinery owned by the state, two State enterprises concerned with the Brazilian Coffee, Sugar and Alcohol trade policies, one shipping company, one reinsurance firm and the major Brazilian airline organization. Thus, his study involved individuals connected with production activities in the industrial

sector, while this study concentrated on organizations from the services sector of the economy.

b) Sex. In Barret's study, 96% of the subjects were male. The proportions of male subjects in this study were 48.6% (Banks) and 53.1% (Other organizations).

c) Age. While in Barret's study 65% of the subjects had over 45 years of age, in this study only 8.6% (Banks) and 8.2% (other organizations) subjects were over 40 years of age.

d) Tenure. Eighty seven per cent of the employees from the Barret's study had at least 16 years of service, and 40% of them had worked for more than 25 years. In this study the proportions of employees with over 9 years of service were 8.6% (Banks) and 14.3% (other organizations).

e) Education. In Barret's sample, 23% of the employees had achieved a university degree, while in this study the proportions were 14.3% (Banks) and 36.7% (other organizations).

The following pages present the general demographic characteristics of subjects included in this study, by sex, age, civil status, number of dependents, level of education, nationality, level in the organization, tenure, previous experience and income level. The notation utilized for identifying each sample was:

BANI - refers to individuals from
Sample 1 - Bank Organizations.

ORGI - refers to individuals from
Sample 2 - Other Organizations.
Sometimes this sample is referred
to as the organization sample.

SUBFILE BANI

SEX

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
MALE	1	17	48.6	48.6	48.6
FEMALE	2	18	51.4	51.4	100.0
TOTAL		35	100.0	100.0	

Table A.1 Distribution of individuals by sex

Bank sample.

SUBFILE ORGI

SEX

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
MALE	1	26	53.1	53.1	53.1
FEMALE	2	23	46.9	46.9	100.0
TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0	

Table A.2 Distribution of individuals by sex
Organization sample.

SUBFILE	BANI						
AGE							
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)		
20 YEARS OR LESS	1	10	28.6	28.6	28.6		
21 - 30 YEARS	2	15	42.9	42.9	71.4		
31 - 40 YEARS	3	7	20.0	20.0	91.4		
41 - 50 YEARS	4	2	5.7	5.7	97.1		
51 YEARS OR MORE	5	1	2.9	2.9	100.0		
TOTAL		35	100.0	100.0			

Table A.3 Distribution of individuals by age

Bank sample.

SUBFILE ORGI

AGE

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
20 YEARS OR LESS	1	2	4.1	4.1	4.1
21 - 30 YEARS	2	20	40.8	40.8	44.9
31 - 40 YEARS	3	23	46.9	46.9	91.8
41 - 50 YEARS	4	2	4.1	4.1	95.9
51 YEARS OR MORE	5	2	4.1	4.1	100.0
TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0	

Table A.4 Distribution of individuals by age
Organization sample.

SURFILE		BANI				
CIV						
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)	
NEVER MARRIED	1	20	57.1	57.1	57.1	
MARRIED	2	14	40.0	40.0	97.1	
OTHER	5	1	2.9	2.9	100.0	
TOTAL		35	100.0	100.0		

Table A.5 Distribution of individuals by civil status
Bank sample.

SUBFILE	ORGI					
CIV						
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)	
NEVER MARRIED	1	19	38.8	38.8	38.8	
MARRIED	2	20	40.8	40.8	79.6	
WIDOWED	3	2	4.1	4.1	83.7	
DIVORCED	4	7	14.3	14.3	98.0	
OTHER	5	1	2.0	2.0	100.0	
TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0		

Table A.6 Distribution of individuals by civil status
Organization sample.

SUBFILE BANI		DEP			
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
NO DEPENDENT	1	24	68.6	68.6	68.6
1 DEPENDENT	2	4	11.4	11.4	80.0
2 DEPENDENTS	3	1	2.9	2.9	82.9
3 DEPENDENTS	4	3	8.6	8.6	91.4
4 DEPENDENTS OR MORE	5	3	8.6	8.6	100.0
TOTAL		35	100.0	100.0	

Table A.7 Distribution of individuals by number of dependents - Bank sample.

SUBFILE	ORGI	DEP	CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
			NO DEPENDENT	1	38	77.6	77.6	77.6
			1 DEPENDENT	2	5	10.2	10.2	87.8
			2 DEPENDENTS	3	2	4.1	4.1	91.8
			4 DEPENDENTS OR MORE	5	4	8.2	8.2	100.0
			TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0	

Table A.8 Distribution of individuals by number of dependents - Organization sample.

SUBFILE		BANI					
EDU							
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)		
PRIMARY LEVEL	1	4	11.4	11.4	11.4		
'O' LEVEL	2	20	57.1	57.1	68.6		
'A' LEVEL	3	6	17.1	17.1	85.7		
UNIVERSITY LEVEL	4	4	11.4	11.4	97.1		
POST GRADUATE LEVEL	5	1	2.9	2.9	100.0		
TOTAL		35	100.0	100.0			

Table A.9 Distribution of individuals by educational level - Bank sample.

SUBFILE	ORGI					
EDU						
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)	
PRIMARY LEVEL	1	2	4.1	4.1	4.1	
'O' LEVEL	2	19	38.8	38.8	42.9	
'A' LEVEL	3	10	20.4	20.4	63.3	
UNIVERSITY LEVEL	4	18	36.7	36.7	100.0	
TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0		

Table A.10 Distribution of individuals by educational level - Organization sample.

SUBFILE	BANI						
NAT							
CATEGORY	LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)	
BRAZILIAN		1	8	22.9	22.9	22.9	
BRITISH		2	24	68.6	68.6	91.4	
OTHER		3	3	8.6	8.6	100.0	
TOTAL			35	100.0	100.0		

Table A.11 Distribution of individuals by nationality

Bank sample

SUBFILE	ORGI					
NAT						
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)	
BRAZILIAN	1	12	24.5	24.5	24.5	
BRITISH	2	34	69.4	69.4	93.9	
OTHER	3	5	6.1	6.1	100.0	
	TOTAL	49	100.0	100.0		

Table A.12 Distribution of individuals by nationality
Organization sample.

SUBFILE BANI

OCC

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
OPERATIONAL LEV.	1	22	62.9	62.9	62.9
MIDDLE LEVEL	2	6	17.1	17.1	80.0
HIGHER LEVEL	3	7	20.0	20.0	100.0
TOTAL		35	100.0	100.0	

Table A.13 Distribution of individuals by level in the
organization - Bank sample.

SUBFILE	ORGI					
OCC						
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)	
OPERATIONAL LEV.	1	22	44.9	44.9	44.9	
MIDDLE LEVEL	2	13	26.5	26.5	71.4	
HIGHER LEVEL	3	14	28.6	28.6	100.0	
TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0		

Table A.14 Distribution of individuals by level in the
organization - Organization sample.

SUBFILE BANI

TEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
LESS THAN 1 YEAR	1	12	34.3	34.3	34.3
1 UP TO 3 YEARS	2	13	37.1	37.1	71.4
3 UP TO 6 YEARS	3	5	14.3	14.3	85.7
6 UP TO 9 YEARS	4	2	5.7	5.7	91.4
9 YEARS OR MORE	5	3	8.6	8.6	100.0
TOTAL		35	100.0	100.0	

Table A.15 Distribution of individuals by tenure

Bank sample.

SUBFILE	ORGI	TEN	CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
			LESS THAN 1 YEAR	1	13	26.5	26.5	26.5
			1 UP TO 3 YEARS	2	15	30.6	30.6	57.1
			3 UP TO 6 YEARS	3	10	20.4	20.4	77.6
			6 UP TO 9 YEARS	4	4	8.2	8.2	85.7
			9 YEARS OR MORE	5	7	14.3	14.3	100.0
			TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0	

Table A.16 Distribution of individuals by tenure
Organization sample.

SUBFILE BANI					
IXP					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	32	91.4	91.4	91.4
NO	2	3	8.6	8.6	100.0
	TOTAL	35	100.0	100.0	

Table A.17 Distribution of individuals by previous work
experience - Bank sample.

SUBFILE	ORGI						
IXP							
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE -FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)		
YES	1	44	89.8	89.8	89.8		
NO	2	5	10.2	10.2	100.0		
TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0			

Table A.18 Distribution of individuals by previous work
experience - Organization sample.

SUBFILE	BANI						
INC							
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)		
5000 OR LESS L.	1	17	48.6	48.6	48.6		
5001 - 10000 L.	2	14	40.0	40.0	88.6		
10001 - 15000 L.	3	4	11.4	11.4	100.0		
TOTAL		35	100.0	100.0			

Table A.19 Distribution of individuals by level of income
Bank sample.

SUBFILE	ORGI	INC				
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)	
5000 OR LESS L.	1	14	28.6	28.6	28.6	
5001 - 10000 L.	2	25	51.0	51.0	79.6	
10001 - 15000 L.	3	7	14.3	14.3	93.9	
15001 - 20000 L.	4	1	2.0	2.0	95.9	
20001 OR MORE L.	5	2	4.1	4.1	100.0	
TOTAL		49	100.0	100.0		

Table A.20 Distribution of individuals by level of income
Organization sample.

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